

# The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH A

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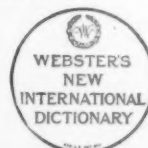
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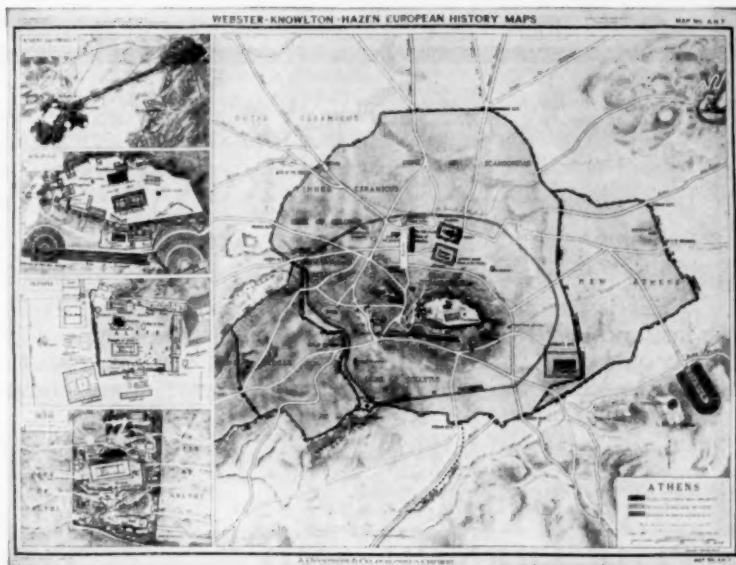


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B. The Congress expressed its sympathy for Boston, formed an American association to boycott English goods, and decided to meet the following May unless the repressive acts were repealed.

### VIII. The Second Continental Congress (1775)

- A. Met in May because the Intolerable Acts were not repealed.  
B. This Congress had to exercise all the functions of a legislature. It—  
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## Ancient Greece and Modern American Life

BY PROFESSOR HERBERT WING, JR., DICKINSON COLLEGE, CARLISLE, PA.

In the beautiful room used by the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania in the Capitol at Harrisburg hang four large chandeliers. Each of these contains the carved figure of an ancient lawgiver whose work has affected modern life. Two are Hebrew, Moses and Solomon; and two are Greek, Solon and Aristotle. Their presence in such surroundings implies the debt we Americans owe to the Old World around the shores of the Mediterranean Sea. How far-reaching is that influence appears when we analyze the elements which make up our civilization and trace them back to their origin. In politics and culture, in many of the conceptions of science which we are wont to regard as recent discoveries, and most of all perhaps in philosophy of life, the beginnings of our ideas are found in the city-states of ancient Hellas. Teachers of Ancient History or of World History will possibly welcome a brief survey of the more characteristic contributions of the Greeks to modern American life.

I do not have in mind so much to determine the exact degree to which our civilization is based on the Greek as to note the phases of Greek history which either mark high-water lines of culture or are particularly instructive for the understanding of our own problems and manner of life. Such an attempt to select the points which a high school teacher might do well to emphasize must take into account not only the significance of events or institutions in the history of mankind, but also their intelligibility for pupils of the teen age. The works of Hellenism, fortunately for this study, are, like the mode of thinking and expression in Greece, distinctly clear-cut and simple.

### THE GREEK DEMOCRACY

The first, and in some respects the most important, contribution of the Greeks to later civilization is democracy. The preceding nations had developed strong governments, many of them recognizing the obligation of the state to protect and benefit its members. Hammurabi of Babylon prided himself on being as a father to his people. The Pharaohs of the Middle Kingdom constructed great public works, like the Fayum reservoir, in the interests of the Egyptians. In neither river-valley nor in the neighboring regions of Syria, Anatolia, and Iran did the idea prevail that the common man should have any direct share in governing himself. The field of politics belonged to the king. In his court there might be intrigues, but theoretically he received from the gods, whose son he was, the mandate to rule the people. With the Greeks the case was different.

With all their variety of constitutions and social organization the city-states were essentially democratic. Sparta, the most conservative among them, had in the ephorate a means by which the mass of the population could directly control the government. In the states where tyrants ruled or oligarchs managed affairs, there remained always the possibility that the common people might rouse themselves and take control of the government. It is evident that a considerable amount of time in the school course would profitably be given to a study of the conditions and institutions by which was achieved for the first time in human history and in the highest degree the form of political organization we consider as peculiarly our own.

The impression at the outset is one of strangeness. The Greek city-state was unlike our cities in being a nation as well as a municipality. It was ruled by a popular assembly instead of a representative council or city manager. It normally made no provision for the assimilation and incorporation in itself of new and alien members. It was a society based on slavery. When, however, we study the city-state more in detail and make the necessary equations in institutions and customs, we find it surprisingly familiar in the problems which it met and the spirit in which it met them. The effort to comprehend such developments as the growth of democracy at Athens would not be without reward in the better understanding of our own institutions.

Athens grew out of a state of society somewhat like that described in the Homeric poems. The king was originally absolute in authority, but, as Hilaire Belloc has suggested, he derived his power from the tacit consent of the governed. He was aided by the advice of the elders and the expression of popular will in the assembly. The Thersites incident suggests the probability that the invisible limitations of royal power were very real and confining. A society in which a king like Odysseus could acquire expertness in such manual labor as cutting down trees could have no great disparity in political privileges. The process of increasing the power of the nobles at the expense of the king, already apparent in Ithaca, continued in Athens to the end of the seventh century.

The growth in the prosperity of the poorer classes, coupled with a keen sense of the discrimination practiced against them, brought about the reorganization of the state by Solon to avert a social revolution. One phase of his constitution was particularly influ-

ential in the development of democracy. The establishment of the popular Supreme Courts gave to the mass of the population an indirect but ultimately dominant voice in the determination of state policy. The more important civil and criminal cases were brought before these courts, each composed of two hundred or more men chosen without reference to financial standing from the whole citizen body. Although an archon presided over such a court, he did not have the power an American judge has to limit the action or decision. He could not for example define the law and restrict the jury to the determination solely of the fact in dispute. This meant, of course, that the wealthier or more noble citizens were almost obliged to conciliate the populace if they hoped to gain their ends in litigation. There was, however, a more direct way in which the courts affected the magistrates. At the end of an official's term of service he had to make himself available for anyone who wished to sue him for maladministration. This was construed in the most liberal fashion, not limited to peculation. A tax collector who was thought to have been unfair in the performance of his duty might be sued, and punished at the discretion of the jury. A statesman might be indicted for the unwisdom of his policy as well as its alleged unconstitutionality. The decrees of the assembly itself might be brought for final judgment before the courts, either in the legal procedure in which the laws of the state were given a formal trial before being repealed, or by the offering of the charge that the motion in the assembly was unconstitutional or had been irregularly introduced. A body in the government which possessed so much power naturally affected the policy of the Athenian state in much the way in which the American Supreme Court has influenced our national life.

An indirect control of affairs would be at best an incomplete form of democracy. The Athenians came to share in the actual government by their work in the assembly and their administrations as members of the council and as magistrates. Instead of delegating the power to decide on appropriations and treaties and the like to representatives, the people voted directly by show of hands in the assembly. Business was ordinarily prepared by the council or a sub-committee of it, but these preliminary drafts of decrees could be modified by the assembly itself. The speakers—as the party leaders were called—were held to strict accountability for the expediency of their proposals. All these safeguards would have been of little value had not the mass of Athenian citizens shown the necessary interest in political affairs and the courage and judgment to vote with prudence for the national weal. Illiteracy was comparatively rare, but book-learning was not the chief way by which the contemporaries of Pericles became, as he said, "Sound judges of a policy." The marketplace was the scene of animated conversation on all the questions of the day. Many a symposium had for its entertainment not a vaudeville sketch, but a

debate on the principles of good government or right living. Most effective of all for the education of the public in political affairs were the court trials, attended by large numbers of the population and addressed by speeches written by the best orators of the day, and the meetings of the assembly where there was opportunity to hear the issues discussed by the men who themselves made history. Such a chance for the whole voting population to learn thoroughly the real basis of the questions on which they are to make decisions did not again occur until radio made nation-wide addresses possible. When we think of the privilege the Athenians of the fifth century had in listening to Pericles defend his policy toward the allies, and those of the fourth century had to hear the debates between Demosthenes and his opponents on the Macedonian question, we are not surprised that Gladstone spoke of them as not inferior in political experience and judgment to his colleagues in Parliament. Democracy in Athens would have been impossible had not the citizens themselves been able to acquire a knowledge of political affairs, and possessed the administrative machinery necessary to put their will into effect. American political thinkers are coming more and more to recognize the fact that the apparently growing unwillingness of citizens to vote or to take any part in our government is in large degree responsible for boss-rule or class control of public affairs.

The fact that major questions were settled by the assembly proper made possible the establishment of a large number of commissions and magistracies whose inexperienced members could attend to the routine matters without injury to the interests of the state. So numerous were these offices that the ordinary man had a better than even chance of filling one of these and gaining thereby the training that comes to him who handles large affairs. This was due to the requirement that candidates for office should be chosen by lot and should not be eligible for re-election. The members of the council could serve but two terms. The result was the necessity of finding each year many new candidates for office. The only important exception to this rule was the board of generals. These were chosen by show of hands and could be returned to office as often as the people wished. Military efficiency could not be so confidently assumed to be the property of the average citizen as could ability or honesty in civil administration. There would, however, normally have been a tendency to fill all the offices with well-to-do citizens who were able to afford the time necessary for performance of public duties. This was avoided by indemnifying the less wealthy officials for time lost from their private work. The jurymen, too, received pay. In our day we meet the same problems of securing efficient officials and paying them adequately. The Athenians assumed the political equality of their citizenry and their fitness to hold any of the offices of the state. Many men in this country are seriously disturbed over the fact that a man to

hold high office must possess great wealth or else kowtow to corrupt gangdom or selfish private interests. The answer to the problem of securing competent public officials is uncertain. The experience of Athens is valuable inasmuch as it shows the working of one solution, extreme though that appears to our eyes.

The democracy found in Greek city-states was of a distinctly qualified nature. If the whole male population of citizens was permitted to share in the government, there were important groups entirely unprivileged. Not to mention the women who took part in government in only the most exceptional circumstances, resident foreigners or metics had no normal way of gaining the full rights of citizenship. In addition, half the population was in slavery. And it is with regard to this, the lowest class in the nation, that democracy is really tested. Its workability and soundness as a political principle are decided by the answer to the question, do its supporters tacitly assume the existence of a dependent group, whose services make possible the leisure necessary for the higher classes to engage in the work of government? If so, then a democracy like that of Athens was merely a kind of refined oligarchy. Another fact of importance in judging the situation is the relation of Athens to the Delian League. From a loose confederation like the Peloponnesian League, the cities became subject allies of Athens. That their condition was if anything improved by the change did not keep them from agitating for freedom. Thus the Athenian empire was a phase of the large process of unification of the Greek city-states. In its effect on Athens the empire was a means of furnishing the state with funds and activities by which the general participation of the citizens in governmental affairs was made possible. It was also significant as illustrating the difficulty the Greeks found in uniting their states in any form of efficient federation. The Achæan and Aetolian Leagues of the third century were better organized, but even these broke on the rocks of selfish aggrandisement and civic rivalry. Imperialism in Greece had no permanent success.

#### FORMS OF GREEK CULTURE

Greek culture in the narrower sense was both the means of attaining political distinction and the flower of municipal self-expression. Had it not been for the development of oratory and the growing consciousness of national distinctness given expression by the historians and the dramatists, the democracy of the later fifth century would hardly have been possible. In another way the works of Greek genius may be thought of as the productions of the same self-reliant spirit that colonized the Mediterranean and protected the Occidental world from the attacks of the two great Oriental powers in the early fifth century. The rivalry of the cities gave added stimulus to the creation of masterpieces of art and literature. The city governments directly made use of these energies for the adornment and glorification of their states and acknowledgment of their debt to the gods for unexpected success in the Persian War.

This is a point worth some insistence, because art and literature today are apt to be the expression of private enterprise and combinations of religion and politics are frowned upon. The revived Olympic games do not have their ancient aspects of national unity and dedication to religion. Nor does a city or state today think normally of showing its individuality officially in erecting the common religious shrine of its citizens as did Athens in building the Parthenon.

The three most marked characteristics of Greek culture are its originality, its sense of moderation and fitness, and its instinct for the beautiful. Time would fail if I were to attempt to make a list of the achievements of the Greeks in the field of literature alone. I will mention a few examples to show concretely the nature of these qualities. Homer is commonly regarded as the first of epic poets. Our interest in him is not merely that of the antiquarian or of the student interested in studying the history of literature. A leading textbook in English composition commends him as unexcelled in descriptive power. The Committee on English Requirements suggest the *Odyssey* as suitable reading in high schools preparing for colleges. The stories of Achilles and Odysseus possess for readers of all ages an undying charm. This is due to the unaffected but noble language in which the events are told so naturally it would be hard to imagine their occurring otherwise.

The three great tragic poets so established the form and content of drama that their standards prevail today in plays written directly in imitation of their style and those composed with a view to intrigue the auditor with frank rebellion against the conventional principles of playwriting. A play like the *Antigone* of Sophocles is more simple and reserved than would be a modern drama. It subordinates almost to extinction the element of romantic love. It is based on what seem to us to be strange principles of faith and conduct. Yet it has a strong appeal when revived by a good modern actress. Its theme, the conflict between religious convictions and political duty, has vigor and stirs the reader profoundly. Its technical excellence is so great it could readily serve as a model for such dramatic qualities as development of plot, delineation of character, and emotional effectiveness.

I will not speak of the long roll of orators who brought public speaking to unrivalled perfection and established for all time the chief canons of literary prose form. I can but allude to the polish, the intense feeling, the reserve of the *Oration on the Crown*. Cicero and Bossuet, Burke and Webster, great as they became, were followers of the Greeks in oratory, as truly as Virgil and Spenser were literary descendants of Theocritus in pastoral poetry. Still one more example of the classic form and reserve in expression is found in the immortal *Lives* of Plutarch. In the plays of Shakespeare they, phoenix-like, have lived



again. They still retain their interest for all of us. We enjoy the tales of Lucullus's banquets, and thrill at the story of Alexander's heroic deeds.

This instinctive excellence of taste which we feel in Greek literature we can appreciate more fully in the great works of architecture and sculpture. As creators of one of the two distinctive styles of building developed in five thousand years, the Greeks merit more than passing attention. It was not chance that led the rivals of Athens to hope to erect on their acropolis a gateway comparable to the Propylæa. Just as Phidias set the norm for the Greek conception of Zeus by his statue at Olympia, the Athenians built on their citadel a group of structures which have been the inspiration and standards of architecture ever since. Not merely the Doric and Ionic styles of classical architecture are based on these, but the Renaissance and in fundamentals the Romanesque as well. We can all appreciate the almost divine beauty of the Parthenon when once we have its proportions and curves called to our attention. The great gold-and-ivory statue long ago disappeared, but the decorative sculpture of the pediments and the two friezes are still among the chief ornaments of the British Museum.

The influence of Greek sculpture on all later work is well-known. It is shown in the popularity of the reproductions of the masterpieces of the Hellenistic Age found now in so many homes and schools. Even the advertisers make effective use of allusions to the Venus of Melos, the Victory of Samothrace, and the Apollo of the Belvedere to prove by a fallacy of logic that their products are as good as their classical namesakes. And there is a growing interest in the masterpieces of the earlier period. The Discus-thrower of Myron, the Hermes of Praxiteles, the grave monuments of the Dipylon cemetery help to form standards of taste in sculpture in much the way that the ever-present motifs of decoration, like the Greek fret, the bead and reel, and the swastika develop our feeling for the appropriate ornament of minor objects d'art. A casual stroll through the streets and into the stores of any moderate-sized city would reveal on every hand the influence of Hellas in the adornment of America.

#### THE ORIGINS OF SCIENCE

One aspect of the ancient world that surprises the modern observer is the contribution which the Greeks made in the field of science. The very notion of disregarding the supernatural and explaining phenomena in terms of science was a great advance. However much the contemporaries of Socrates might try to arouse popular indignation against him by charging him with uttering the teachings of Anaxagoras, the man of Clazomenæ who called the sun a ball of fire and the moon a stone and gave the true explanation of eclipses was a worthy predecessor of Galileo and Faraday. The earliest of the philosophic scientists worked without instruments and did not perform experiments in the modern way. Their hypotheses were

none the less important in the development of human knowledge. Thus, Anaximander seems to anticipate Darwin in a primitive doctrine of evolution. The atomic theory of Democritus proved to be a valuable help in the later formulation of chemical doctrine. A second contribution in the field of science was made by the Pythagoreans in their insistence on the importance of the study of science for its own sake irrespective of its immediate practical utility. The Egyptians had made valuable contributions to mathematical knowledge, but in general they limited their investigations to the problems that would throw light on such matters as surveying and engineering. The third contribution in this field is the examination and discussion of the limitations of the human observation and knowledge. The work of the Eleatics in investigating sense-illusions and the skepticism of the sophists made care in assertion necessary for subsequent observers. The three great philosophers—Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle—developed the method of inductive reasoning by which the results of scientific observation are correlated. The followers of Aristotle, especially Theophrastus, extended the investigations of their teacher in classifying and recording the results of their observations. Finally, the actual contributions to knowledge by the scientists of the Hellenistic age were not inconsiderable. To mention but two, the heliocentric theory was stated by Aristarchus, and the principle of buoyancy was established by Archimedes. Students in high school who are studying physics and chemistry are capable of understanding such phases of Greek achievement. They ought, I think, be told something of these matters in order that they may get a correct conception of the world of the bygone ages. The political and military aspects of Greek history ought not be disregarded, but they have no claim to hold the center of attention to the exclusion of other phases of civilization.

All this emphasis on science led naturally to a readjustment of the religious and philosophical ideas of the Greeks. The old faiths had by the time of Alexander been rather thoroughly shaken. The intimate connection that existed between the government and religion weakened the state cults as the city-states declined in relative political significance before the advance of Macedon. Delphi lost prestige by the growth of incredulity concerning prophecy and the suspicion of being allied with the enemies of Greece or under the control of special interests like the Alcmaeonidæ of Athens in the fifth century or of the Aetolians in the third. The primitive conceptions of the deities which had won the faith of Pindar and Aeschylus disappeared under the solvent forces of philosophy. The claims of the early worshipers to interpret natural phenomena as manifestations of divine power directly manifested seemed to be contradicted by the facts of science. The stories of the gods that Hesiod and Herodotus had accepted with



little question offended the moral sense of Plato and his contemporaries. Contact with the East after the conquests of Alexander brought acquaintance with Oriental cults, especially those of Cybele and Isis, with their greater thrill of participation and promise of forgiveness from sin. The more thoughtful of the Greeks tended rather completely to alter their position regarding the nature of the gods. Some, like the Epicureans, went the whole way in the adoption of their materialistic conception of nature. They did not bother to get rid of gods; they made them impotent or indifferent. The gods were supposed to be made of the finest sort of atoms and to live in perfect bliss in the interspaces of the world. The Stoics identified the gods with the spirit of nature, conformity to which was the main duty of man. They tended toward fatalism. Their teachings were in accord with the prevailing international feeling. All men were brothers, each a citizen of the world. The Platonists refined their Idea of the Good until it ceased to have the appeal of personality or else fell into the Scylla or Charybdis of skepticism and mysticism. The followers of Aristotle devoted themselves largely to science. Thus, in many respects,

the Greek world of the Hellenistic period was very modern in its view of life.

The same analytical and critical attitude prevailed in other fields. The old standards of virtue lost their force. The city-state and its institutions were assailed by men, convinced that monarchy or aristocracy was preferable on the grounds of efficiency. Artistic and literary canons were disregarded in quite the spirit of the experimental drama and futurist art of the present day. Individualism took the place of loyalty to the native *polis*. In countless ways the Hellenistic Age reminds of our own times. Its history suggests the usefulness of a re-evaluation of the main principles of life. He who would go back into the earlier period of Hellenic achievement would perhaps be led to a firmer conception of the value of democracy, the serviceableness of the æsthetic in the relations of life, and the rewards which come to men who look at facts without evasion. The study of Greek history should therefore not only inform the pupil of a number of events and institutions of the past, but help him to a greater appreciation of the good, the beautiful, and the true.

## Some Early Political Cartoons

BY PROFESSOR FRANK H. HODDER, UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS

It is not generally realized that the political cartoon, as we know it today, is a comparatively recent institution. It began at the time of our war with Spain and developed gradually until it reached its present standardized form. In our early history, before and after the Revolution, there was no systematic political caricature but occasional cartoons, varying widely in form, were published separately or printed in magazines. The earliest cartoons in uniform style were a series of colored lithographs issued during the War of 1812 celebrating American victories in ship duels with the British. But American caricature had still to wait a good many years for its development.

In the so-called Era of Good Feeling that followed the War of 1812, there was but a single political party, the Republicans of that day, and political contests were limited to rivalry between personal factions that developed within the party. As a forerunner of the later development, a crude lithograph was issued in the campaign of 1824 which represented the campaign as a foot race with Jackson, Crawford, and John Quincy Adams running neck-and-neck and Clay falling far in the rear and giving up because he had not received enough electoral votes to bring his name before the House.

The real development of the first phase of American caricature came with Jackson's administration, when the great Republican party divided into two parts: the National Republicans or Whigs led by John Quincy Adams and Clay and the Democratic Republicans or Democrats who espoused the cause

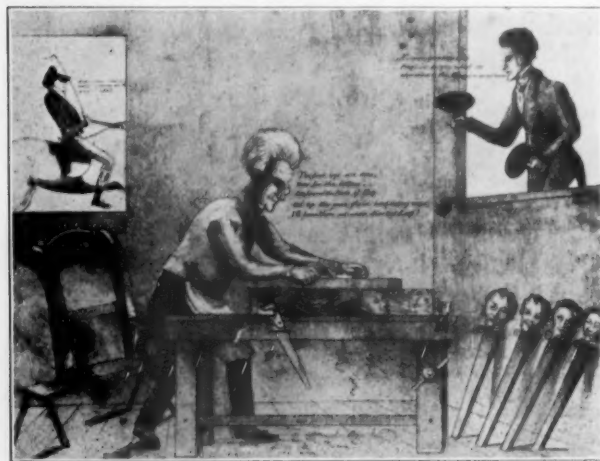


Breakup of Jackson's Cabinet in 1831

of Jackson. At this time the form of the political cartoon was standardized and consisted of a single sheet lithograph about the size of the modern newspaper page. It was sold for 25 cents and pinned up in offices, shop windows and other conspicuous places. This type of cartoon held exclusive sway until the Civil War.

The earliest cartoons of this type represented the breakup of Jackson's cabinet in 1831. It was supposed at the time that this was caused by Jackson's espousal of the cause of Peggy Eaton, the wife of the Secretary of War, with whom the wives of the other members of the cabinet refused to associate, but it is now known that it was carefully planned by Van Buren in the interest of his own candidacy for the presidency as Jackson's successor. In this cartoon the White House and the presidential chair were represented as in a state of collapse and the resigning members of the cabinet as rats "leaving a falling house." Jackson was represented as putting one foot on the tail of the rat with Van Buren's head, as a result of an erroneous report that Jackson had asked Van Buren to stay in the cabinet. A curious detail of the cartoon was the altar of freedom surmounted by a miniature donkey, with the wings of a bat, a possible forerunner of the present Democratic donkey. This cartoon was one of the most popular ever issued and many variations of it were published. Friends of Jackson countered with a cartoon representing the White House as "firm as a rock" and the newly appointed members of the cabinet as rats coming in to accept their nominations.

One pro-Jackson cartoon represented Jackson as a cabinet maker making a new cabinet. He had made the back of the new presidential chair, had made legs

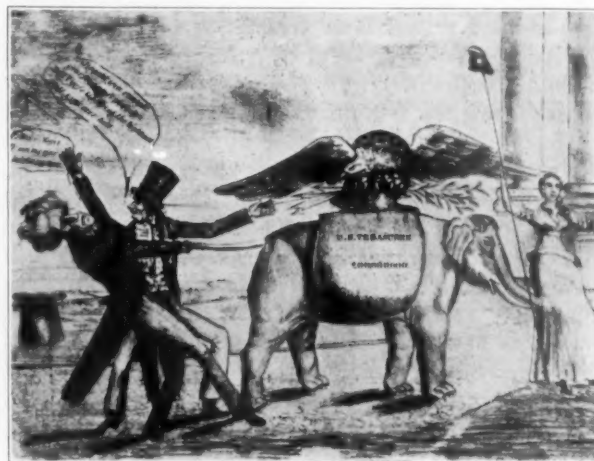


Jackson Making a New Cabinet

for it surmounted by the heads of the newly appointed members of the cabinet and was at work making the seat. John Randolph is seen through one window riding by on his favorite horse, Juba, and Duff Green, the editor of "The Telegraph," with ink pads in his hands, looks in at the other window and bewails the fact that he has "no more printing to do." This detail was based upon the fact that "The Globe,"

edited by Francis P. Blair, was at this time made the administration organ in place of "The Telegraph."

The paramount issue in the campaign of 1832 for the re-election of Jackson was the recharter of the United States bank. Congress had passed a bill for its recharter which Jackson had vetoed. In a cartoon of the campaign, opponents of Jackson represented Congress as a calm and placid elephant, carrying the



Cartoon of Campaign of 1832

deposits of the United States treasury, with the American eagle perched upon its back and Columbia leading the way, while Jackson was twisting the elephant's tail "in a last desperate pull for power." Urging on Jackson was Major Jack Downing, the pen name of Seba Smith, a popular political writer of the time, whom the historians have overlooked. The elephant in this cartoon is the only occurrence in early caricature of the emblem which Nast later used to represent the present Republican party and labelled the G. O. P.



Criticism of Jackson, 1837

One of the last cartoons of Jackson's administration was called "The Modern Balaam and his Ass." Here the Democratic party is typified by the ass, which balks at the angel of the Lord foretelling the crisis of 1837. Jackson, not seeing the angel, beats the ass with his cane and paraphrasing the story of

Balaam exclaims: "I would that there were a sword in my hand, for now would I veto thee." Van Buren, who had been elected to succeed Jackson, had said that it would be his policy to tread in the footsteps of his illustrious predecessor. In consequence of this statement he is represented in the cartoon as stepping in the tracks made by the ass.

The ass or donkey continued to be used to some extent as the emblem of the Democratic party. In the campaign of 1844 the several candidates for the presidency, in advance of their nomination, were represented mounted upon various animals running a race. Clay rode a coon, which had been adopted as the Whig emblem in 1840. Van Buren rode a fox, Cass a hound, Calhoun a lion, and Tyler was trying



Political Merry-go-round in 1844

to balance himself between a Democratic or loco foco donkey and a Whig horse. In the campaign of 1856, the Republicans were symbolized by the Democrats as a woolly horse, a nondescript animal which Bar-num had faked in 1850, and claimed that Fremont had sent him from the Gila country.

Although occurring occasionally in later years, the single lithograph sheet played a prominent part for the last time in the campaign of 1860, during which enormous numbers of them were published. In that day it was considered undignified for a presidential candidate to appeal in person for popular support. The thing which the people nowadays almost demand of candidates was at that time strongly condemned. Scott made a short tour in 1852, making some non-political speeches on the way, but he did so upon the pretense of inspecting a military hospital at Blue Lick, Ky. Johnson's famous "swing around the circle" in 1866 was nominally made for the purpose of dedicating the Douglas monument in Chicago. When Stephen A. Douglas was criticized for taking the stump in 1860 he made the excuse that he was on his way to Vermont to see his mother. After that he was caricatured as "Stephen in search of his mother." One cartoon was entitled "Stephen finding his

mother." It represented Columbia as scourging Douglas with a cat-o-nine-tails labelled Maine law. This cartoon is notable as the last appearance of Uncle Sam in the guise and garb of Benjamin Franklin, a form occasionally given to him at an earlier period.

During the Civil War political cartoons of small size began to appear in the back pages of such illustrated weeklies as "Harper's," "Frank Leslie's," "Vanity Fair," and "Every Saturday," most of which have long since disappeared. The cartoons struck a popular cord, were increased in size and number and soon became a leading feature of these publications. The greatest reputation was made by Thomas Nast who had drawn battle scenes for "Harper's" during the War and now turned cartoonist. The most effective work ever accomplished by political caricature was in Nast's fight on the Tweed ring in the pages of "Harper's Weekly" in the early seventies. In time the public tired of Nast's style and his cartoons lost favor.

With the invention of color printing a new type of cartoon came into vogue. "Puck" was made a colored comic weekly in 1879 and acquired great prominence in the campaign of 1880. The Republicans founded "Judge" as an offset to "Puck" and there were a number of other imitators. For the next twenty years the colored comic weeklies dominated the field of political caricature. The leading artists were Joseph Keppler, Bernard Gillam, and Grant E. Hamilton. Of all the publications of this type "Judge" alone survives in a reduced and greatly altered form. The newspaper cartoon, beginning during our war with Spain, developed rapidly until it assumed the form now so familiar and acquired a virtual monopoly of the field.



Cartoon Against Douglas in 1860



# Methodology in the College Curriculum

BY PROFESSOR FREDERIC S. KLEIN, A. M., FRANKLIN AND MARSHALL COLLEGE

There are few colleges and universities whose curricula do not at present classify history as either a political or a social "science." The classification is not merely the result of a desire for a "new" or "modern" terminology; it arises from the use of more exact, analytical, and logical methods of the study of history. There is little doubt that the older system of memorizing and accepting all textbook statements and lecture-room opinions as indisputably authentic is as out-of-date as are Latin orations on Commencement Day. The attitude of the earliest American colleges toward the subject is excellently indicated by the very title they gave their courses in history—"Chronology," which meant a study of dates and little else.

It is rather unfortunate, in view of this more scientific treatment of the study and teaching of history, that so few scientific principles have actually been applied to its course of study. If we examine for a moment the methods used in pure science courses, the difference is readily noticeable. A college student in chemistry, for example, begins his study by the use of a very general, comprehensive classroom text, and at the same time accompanies this work by gaining a thorough acquaintance with the mechanics of laboratory work—use of equipment, performance of simple tests, and simple research problems. Succeeding years find him fairly well acquainted with the *modus operandi* of research, and permit him to narrow his field of knowledge gradually, as he improves in actual experimental ability, and he finally arrives at the ideal stage of possessing a thorough knowledge of his chosen sphere and of having adequate research ability to use that knowledge to best advantage. The same method is used in the study of biology, physics, and kindred sciences. Even in psychology, hitherto the most theoretical of subjects, the beginner seldom passes through the first year without a careful laboratory study of the anatomy of the human body, in order that the theories of stimuli, reactions, etc., may be thoroughly understood.

But how much scientific method is used in the course of study in history? In spite of the fact that many colleges provide at least one or more courses in historical method or historiography for undergraduate students, this course is seldom offered before the third year of college work, which leaves but one year in which the student may make practical application of the laboratory principles to which he has so recently been introduced. In some institutions, no opportunity is given for study of methods until the years of post-graduate work, necessitating the expenditure of nearly half of that important period in the acquisition of a technique which ought to be second nature by that time. The college teacher recognizes the

futility of attempting to analyze critically the less clearly defined issues or interpretations of history before an unnecessarily large class of freshmen or sophomores who have but the vaguest idea of the differences between primary and secondary sources, and whose final test of accuracy is the printed page. It is not fair that the teacher should be compelled to utilize valuable classroom time in explanations of the most elementary principles used in the proper preparation of papers, book reports, or critical essays; it is equally unjust that the student should be expected to attain any practicable working knowledge of methodology under such unsystematic conditions.

There are a number of ways through which the situation might be bettered. It is an arrant fallacy to presuppose that the first-year college student, embryonic as he or she may be, does not possess sufficient powers of judgment to cope with the details of correct interpretation and criticism—the highly satisfactory results secured in experimental schools with senior and even junior high school students indicate that it is not so much a matter of maturity as one of proper training. At present the average undergraduate college program in history usually provides for either a very general course in medieval or modern European history, or a comprehensive course in contemporary civilization during the first college year. If an introductory course in historic method could be substituted at this stage, a number of decided advantages would be noticeable in the succeeding years' work—advantages such as a thorough acquaintance with the library facilities, a knowledge of bibliographical aids, a conception of how history is written, and an idea of how history may be criticized or interpreted. With a student thus equipped, there is much less likelihood that term papers or reports will be based so frequently and so obstinately on the often misleading descriptions of the nearest encyclopedia, or that so much valuable discussion time will be wasted in destroying that popular edifice of infallible proof which is expressed in the unfortunately far-from-uncommon phrase, "I saw it in a book."

The curricular readjustments necessary to bring about this change are surprisingly few. There are any number of sufficiently elementary texts in the field, and the average college teacher will welcome the opportunity of doing systematically and efficiently the work which he is now doing hurriedly and haphazardly in his regular courses. It is possible to secure excellent results in a course of this nature by giving each member of the department an opportunity to conduct methodological experiments, or to lecture on his own particular system and viewpoint, which serves the dual purpose of giving the student the broadest possible view of the field, and of acquaint-



ing him at the same time with the methods, aims, and attitudes of the various professors with whom he may choose his work in succeeding years.

It may be protested that such a course is unnecessary and inadvisable on the grounds that a comparatively small percentage of college students in history ever continue its study by either teaching or writing after they leave college, and that for such students historic method is a waste of time. That argument ignores the well-known fact that more students *would* teach or write history after they left college if they had received an adequate conception of its possibili-

ties while they had studied it, and erroneously assumes that a course of study which requires college students to exercise logically judicious and painstakingly exact criticism would be wasted effort.

It seems much more probable that the introduction of such training at the beginning of serious historical study would result not only in a keener perception of the dangers which await the careless and a more sincere interest in the solution or interpretation of purely historical problems, but also in a sense of logical, conservative judgment which would prove to be of considerable value in any field.

## American History in English Schools and Universities

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR E. ROBINSON, STANFORD UNIVERSITY

In the aftermath of ideas that owe their present importance to the united efforts of English-speaking peoples in 1917-1918 is to be found the beginning of a movement to bring into existence in Great Britain opportunities for the study of American history. By American history is meant the history of the United States since 1783. The earlier years are considered in courses in British Colonial history, Canada is included in Imperial history, and as yet Latin America does not appear except as it may be considered in the general account of the expansion of Europe. It is the United States of America where "there are congregated more than a hundred million English-speaking folk" which has become of interest to a considerable body of English scholars and public men. "How did this, by far the greatest collection of English-speaking people, come into existence, achieve self-government, preserve its unity, and foster a prosperity which is the wonder and envy of other nations?"—questions a recent appeal for the means for teaching the subject in one of the greatest British universities.

It may be well to state exactly what is being done at present in three English universities; at Oxford, at Cambridge, and at University College in the University of London. At Oxford, where Dr. Robert McElroy holds the Harmsworth Professorship in American history there are from 30 to 40 students reading in various fields of American history. It has been estimated that there are 30,000 volumes, dealing with various aspects of American history, available in the libraries at Oxford. There is being constructed at present, under funds from the Cecil Rhodes Trust, a library building for the housing of books on American and Colonial history. This will provide "admirable facilities for the work of graduates and undergraduates." At Cambridge there is as yet no chair of American history. There are, however, numerous lectures given on special subjects; for example, a series in the Honors School of Economics, and during the past three years special attention has been given the subject "Secession and the preservation of the

United States." There is no special collection of American books on American history. In University College (London) there was made in 1921 "the earliest provision for the systematic and regular teaching of the subject in a British university." Here, under the direction of Professor H. H. Bellot, who was assigned to this work, there were presented two courses of lectures covering the period, 1783 to the present time, and a seminar as well. Some 30 students have taken work in these fields of study. A library of 3,000 volumes on the history, institutions, and literature of the United States has been available. A much larger collection of books, together with a considerable body of source material, has been built up at the Institute of Historical Research, close at hand.

When we turn to the smaller universities in England we find a different situation. Examination made in nine of the eleven institutions gives ample evidence of what has been termed "a maimed and stunted growth" in the teaching of history. Everywhere some attention is given to the Colonial period, but as part of British history. In this connection some of the institutions have collections of books by American scholars, but most of them do not. In partial explanation it is frequently pointed out that the funds for the purchase of books do not as yet adequately cover the fields of European history. This is the emphasis, whenever the matter of history is discussed. Europe has long been the chief subject of historical study in English universities, and remains so. In commenting upon the lack of any course of lectures in the field of American history it has been said by one who knows the situation, "nor indeed is there any demand for the history of the United States." In addition to the passing attention given the development of the United States in the courses in Colonial, British and World history (particularly when a course is given on the nineteenth century), it is of interest to note that at present there is given at Durham University, "a two-year course of lectures on the American Revolution"; at Manchester "a short course intended for students

in the Honors School of Geography"; and that at Sheffield "the collection of books by American writers is growing every year." Altogether we may conclude that in general for the smaller universities "American history and American history books are non-existent," the form of summary used by one of the English scholars.

After all, the universities reach a comparatively small body of persons, and except for the scholars engaged in the study of history, the persons involved have not been greatly impressed with the place of the United States in the world of today and of a need for understanding American development. But outside of the universities, and usually under guidance of university tutors and lecturers, there has developed an interest in American history, institutions, and theories, which has been embodied in series of what Americans would term extension lectures, and in classes of men and women pursuing work under the guise of adult education. For example, for work of this kind the Cambridge University Press has printed a syllabus for twelve lectures on "The United States of America," which includes a selected bibliography of available American books; another for twelve lectures on the Relations of the United States with Great Britain, also with bibliography. There are others. The Workers' Educational Association reports a growing interest in everything American, and this includes economics, politics, and history. It appears that the lecturers are able to meet this demand in the way of lectures, but that there is great lack of books, and, of course, almost complete absence of an American point of view or even a satisfactory familiarity with American conditions, based upon residence in, or at least a trip to, the United States. The lack of American books for this kind of work is the outstanding weakness. In the Central library for students maintained in London by the Workers' Educational Association there are, approximately, one hundred books on American history, about half of them by American scholars.

But the bulk of the English people are untouched by the interests of the university man or woman, and know nothing of adult education. As in America the school years furnish the educational experience, common to the whole people, and it is in the schools that the lack of attention to the history of the United States is productive of the greatest amount of ignorance of the status and development of "more than a hundred million English-speaking folk." As in the universities, America appears as a factor in courses and in books given over to Colonial, British, or World history. It is not treated as a separate subject, nor can this be expected. In the well-known public schools America is given careful, if limited, attention. In the great London school system there is little mention. On the shelves of the London County Council library, given over to reference use for teachers in the London schools, there are only a half-dozen volumes on American history. On the whole it may be said that the treatment of the period of American colonial origins is inadequate, that the

treatment of the period of the American Revolution, 1763-1783, is fairly extensive, and that the nineteenth century and the first quarter of the twentieth century are almost entirely neglected. A change that promises more for the future appears in a textbook on *Modern History*, prepared in 1926 by H. W. Hedges, an English scholar. "For over a century American history has been ignored in British schools. ....Rightly or wrongly the claims of local, industrial, and imperial history have been pressed in our schools to the exclusion of a wider survey." Then follows an excellent chapter on American development, 1783-1920. This book points the way to a more satisfactory situation in the schools.

Widespread, adequate, and accurate knowledge of American history among the people of Great Britain will depend in the years to come upon the work done by British scholars in British universities; consequently, the appeal for adequate facilities in the way of instruction and guidance, and, most of all, in the way of books, including a considerable amount of source material.

The beginnings are promising. In the capital of the British Empire, "without rival in wealth of historical sources," there is already housed at the Institute of Historical Research, the nucleus of a great library on American history. In the past seven years, the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the Massachusetts Historical Society, the Minnesota Historical Society, and the State Department, at Washington, have contributed generously either in money or volumes to this collection. The Manton Marble collection and a portion of the library of George Louis Beer have been added. This equipment has made it possible to conduct a seminar for post-graduate work in American history. It is not strange that recently there has been formed in London and in New York committees "to give co-operation in the establishment in the University of London, at University College, of a chair for instruction in American history."

As examples of the work done and the sources used in an American history course (Spanish-American War) at University College the following questions, taken from an examination, may be cited:

- (a) Explain the relation of Monroe's message of December 2, 1823, upon the situation in Cuba throughout the century.
- (b) Trace the growth of American demands between March 17 and April 11, 1898.
- (c) Discuss the responsibility for and importance of the "Maine" disaster in the light of recent investigations.

and

Discuss the following:

- (a) Navy should go into the harbor (of Santiago) at any cost. (Cable from Shafter to U. S. War Department.)
- (b) The government of Spain considers it inopportune to discuss the causes of the war and the acts by which it occurred, but cannot accept the responsibility of having declared it,

because Spain intended to do nothing more than protest against the resolution of Congress of the republic, when, in order not to hear its notification, she caused diplomatic relations to cease. (Spanish observations to M. Cambon, August 1, 1898.)

- (c) The undersigned cannot agree that it is wise to take the Philippines in whole or in part. (Judge Gray on terms to be offered to Spain.)

Somewhat more than two years ago, Dr. Robert McElroy, Harold Vyvyan Harmsworth, Professor of American history at Oxford, in the conclusion of his inaugural address on "American History as an International Study," said: "I do not claim, I would not dare to claim, that American history offers more practical advantages than English history, or the history of other European nations; but I do claim that

the men of other and older nations will neglect its lessons at the risk of repeating failures which need not be repeated. The wisest generation is always lying in the cradle—if evolution applies to human progress—and as we plan to train it for vast problems so soon to be its own, let us not scorn to take some of our lessons from the younger nations."

In England, in years gone by, the practice of politics has been productive of great advance for mankind, and in the universities of England it is evident that in years to come there is to be important and influential study of the science of politics. In these English universities it is to be hoped that American experience will be subjected to keen observation and critical analysis. To that end adequate provision has yet to be made for the study of American history.

## Non-Voting in Germany

BY PROFESSOR ROGER H. WELLS, BRYN MAWR COLLEGE

Once again an American presidential election draws near and the hue and cry against the non-voter rings out through the land. Politicians and press, chambers of commerce and churches, civic organizations and clubs join in the chorus of exhortation and warning. "Half of our citizens do not vote. The number of vote-slackers continues to increase. What will become of the Republic? Compare our voting efficiency with that of the more advanced states of Europe." Undoubtedly, such a comparison is unfavorable to the United States. And yet the problem of non-voting is by no means an exclusively American one. Even republican Germany with its thoroughly modernized governmental institutions complains of *Wahlmüdigkeit* (weariness of elections) and *Wahlfaulheit* (vote-slacking). It may, therefore, be of interest to examine the extent and causes of non-voting in Germany.

The following table shows the German voter's record in various national elections of the past decade.<sup>1</sup>

Date	Election	Percentage of Qualified Voters Voting
1919	Constitutional Convention	82.7%
1920	Reichstag	78.4
1924 (May)	Reichstag	76.3
1924 (Dec.)	Reichstag	77.7
1925 (March)	President	68.9
1925 (April)	President	77.6
1928	Reichstag	75.4

It is thus apparent that the Germans have, on the whole, performed their electoral duties better than Americans have done in presidential elections. Nevertheless, the statistics show a small, but fairly steady decline in voting since 1919. The stirring days of the revolutionary period, of Liebknecht and Kapp, of Ruhr occupation and inflation are over, normalcy again reigns, and civic interest declines.<sup>2</sup>

To say that three-fourths of the qualified German citizens vote in national elections today is somewhat

misleading, because of the great differences which exist in different parts of the country. At the *Reichstag* election of May 20, 1928, there were communities in South Germany where the polling scarcely exceeded 50 per cent. On the other hand, various Berlin boroughs polled well over 90 per cent., Berlin-Lichtenberg reaching the extraordinary figure of, approximately, 96 per cent. The same disparities may be found in the choice of state legislatures and city councils. At the Hessian state legislature election of November 13, 1927, 51 per cent. of the voters appeared at the *Wahllokale*; two weeks later, at a similar election in the state of Brunswick, the vote reached 90 per cent. In 1925, a 44 per cent. vote elected the city council of Mannheim, Baden; while a 92 per cent. vote chose the council of the city of Schmölln, Thuringia. When one turns to the less important county and provincial elections, the vote sometimes falls as low as 25 per cent. These percentages are not exceptional, for they can be matched by others chosen from a wide variety of places and circumstances. They indicate that there is a problem of non-voting in Germany, a problem of which the Germans themselves are fully conscious.<sup>3</sup>

As to the causes of this condition, opinions are divided. In the United States, the reasons for non-voting may be grouped under three main heads. In the first place, the tasks placed upon the American electorate by periodic registration, the long ballot, frequent elections, etc., are too numerous and too burdensome to be performed effectively. Secondly, there is the plurality system of elections, the system of "winner takes everything." Thus in a state or district which is strongly Republican or strongly Democratic, there is little incentive for the weaker parties to get out the vote, nor does the dominant party need to exert its full strength. Finally, politics seems to be less able than formerly to hold its own



amid the competing interests of American life; and civic indifference supplants civic interest. How far do these or similar reasons apply to Germany?

The first of these reasons clearly is not applicable since the German voter's task is comparatively light. Germany has an excellent plan of permanent registration system (*Meldewesen*) and thus the sovereign citizen is spared needless electoral trouble. Furthermore, the ballot itself is short, simple, and easy to mark. Except for a very few executive officials, such as the *Reichspräsident* and the mayors of the smaller towns, only legislators are chosen by popular vote. These are elected in party lists, usually without opportunity to vote for individual candidates, so that one cross in the party circle is sufficient. Because of the simplicity of the ballot, the number of invalid ballots in a German election is small, normally under 1 per cent., except when several kinds of elections are held on the same day, but under different rules. At such times, the spoiled ballots may reach 3 per cent. In Bavaria, at the *Reichstag* election last May, the state, provincial, and county elections were combined with it. This was somewhat confusing, but not too much so, since separate and differently colored ballots were used for the several elections. As a matter of fact, many of the invalid ballots have been deliberately spoiled by the voters. One cannot adorn the ballot with "Hoch der Kaiser" or "Long live Communism" and expect to "get away with it."

The American electorate is troubled not only by registration requirements and long ballots, but also by too frequent elections. Such a complaint is likewise made in Germany, but with much less justification. In the first place, there are no legally established or legally regulated primary elections. Nominations are normally made by party conventions, committees, and primary assemblies under rules determined by the party itself. The initiative, referendum, and recall—a second source of numerous elections in a considerable number of American states—are widely authorized in German national, state, and local government; but in practice, these instruments of direct democracy are seldom used, a fact which, consequently, reduces the number of elections. The custom of holding several elections together also lessens the trips which the citizen must make to the polling place.

In the United States, it is charged that the holding of elections on week days reduces the voting participation since the voter does not care to take time away from his work. Would it be better if our elections were held on Sundays or public holidays as is the case in Germany? The writer is inclined to answer this question in the negative and for two reasons. Some, possibly a considerable number of American citizens might be kept away from the polls because of religious scruples. Moreover, Germany's experience with Sunday elections is not altogether favorable. German families love their Sabbath *Ausflug* or excursion, and, if the weather be good, they leave early and return late. Hence, the German politician prays for a little rain on election day as a means of

keeping people within the reach of the party workers. The newspapers are filled with such admonitions as, "The Sunday outing must not take place until you have voted," or "First vote and then go to the athletic field." What would happen in America with Sunday elections, good weather, and an automobile in almost every family can well be imagined.

The second main cause of non-voting in the United States is the plurality system of elections. But German legislative elections are conducted under proportional representation whereby each political group receives a number of representatives proportionate to the number of valid ballots cast for that group. Accordingly, it is to the interest of every German party to do its utmost to get out the party vote. No one who has witnessed a German election can doubt the thoroughness with which the campaign is carried on. Parades with bands, banners, fife, drum, and bugle corps and, at night, torchlight processions, great political rallies in beer halls and concert halls, party handbills and party newspapers scattered wholesale on the streets, party posters on walls and bulletin boards, political movies and movie advertising, house to house canvassing and the "buttonholing" of the individual, special appeals to each class or group, solicitation of campaign funds, bloody clashes between rival partisan groups—all these belong to the art of politics in the New Germany.<sup>4</sup> Indeed, one may say that, apart from professional gunmen, outright bribery, and ballot-box frauds with which some American cities are not unfamiliar, almost all the tried and true devices of American politicians find their counterparts in Germany. On election day, the greatest effort is made to bring out the vote. The sick in hospitals are often permitted to cast their ballots in the hospital building itself, the sick, aged, and infirm at home are carried on stretchers or in automobiles to the polls, the able-bodied non-voter finds himself besieged by the party's *Schlepperdienst* (hauler service) which insists upon supplying him with transportation to the *Wahllokal*. Finally, for those who are compelled to be out of town on election day, the election laws frequently provide a means of voting *in absentia*.

Thus there can be no doubt that proportional representation stimulates the endeavors of the parties and thereby increases the voting ratio. On the other hand, the system of proportional representation now used in Germany also contributes to non-voting. The multiplication of political groups, the so-called "splinter parties," is encouraged since a ticket may be nominated and placed upon the ballot by petition of a small number of qualified voters, usually from ten to fifty.<sup>5</sup> In consequence, at the last *Reichstag* election, no less than thirty-two tickets were filed, eighteen of which received a total of 1,700,000 votes and yet did not elect a single representative. Heine has rightly said that every German is his own party, but the utter futility of so many party groups and the fact that every cabinet must be a coalition tends to make the suffrage seem worthless in the eyes of numerous voters.



Moreover, the German elector feels that the present system of proportional representation gives too much power to the existing parties. He is not allowed to vote for individual candidates as such; he must vote only for the party list as a whole. The average party voter may have had little or no voice in the nomination of that list. He is not even likely to know who the candidates are, except for the first three or four whose names are printed on the ballot. Deprived of the right to "scratch" the ticket, compelled to register his choice for or against the party as such, the voter has no one candidate whom he may especially support as his own personal and local representative. Hence the cry is raised against the tyranny of the party machine and the "bound list" plan of proportional representation which ties the voter fast to the party ticket. Such things likewise make for non-voting.

The third main cause of failure to exercise the suffrage is to be found in general indifference. Indifference probably plays a larger part in American elections than in German; nevertheless, even there, it has a considerable rôle, especially in certain parts of the country. For example, the voters of the state of Hesse are notoriously indifferent to all kinds of elections. To some extent, this is to be explained by the fact that the antagonism between the Socialist and non-Socialist parties is not so strong as elsewhere, in consequence of which, politics is not such a life and death struggle. Moreover, in Hesse and the other states as well, the bitter and disillusioning experiences of the post-war years have left many people apathetic or disgusted with things political. Indifference is also the chief reason why the voting participation of women in Germany is almost invariably less than that of men, sometimes as much as 15 per cent. less. The republican régime enfranchised the *Deutsche Hausfrau*, but her interest in politics still continues to lag behind that of her husband and brothers.

Outside of the political parties themselves, what is being done to combat non-voting in Germany? The methods employed are very similar to those employed in the American Get-out-the-Vote Movement. In the propaganda, the German newspapers have taken a prominent part through the publication of cartoons, articles, poems, advertisements, and the like. In six of the largest cities, special non-partisan organizations have been founded for the sole purpose of arousing the voter to his civic duty. Although supposedly non-partisan, these organizations probably operate to the benefit of the Middle and Right parties since non-voting is especially common in the middle classes. The working masses largely belong to the Socialist and Communist parties and these parties are so efficient that they need little outside help. The methods used by the German "Get-out-the-Vote Clubs" involve publicity and propaganda of all sorts—by radio, movies, press, bulletin boards, including witty verses on restaurant tables and the command, "Go to the polls," printed on street car and bus tickets. Finally, on election day, transportation to

the polls is provided for those who care to avail themselves of it.

If measures such as these fail, there remains the final, and, what seems to most Americans, the drastic remedy of compulsory voting. At the present time, compulsory voting is beyond the pale of practical politics in the United States. This is not the case in Germany where service for the state is more highly esteemed and the principle of obligatory service for the state more widely established. Two of the smaller states, Lippe and Mecklenburg-Strelitz, have already introduced compulsory voting. A further decline in the voting ratio will doubtless induce other German states to take similar action.

<sup>1</sup> Statistics taken from *Statistisches Jahrbuch für das Deutsche Reich, passim*, and from other official sources. In 1926, an initiative measure proposing to confiscate the princes' property was submitted to the German people. The smallness of the vote cast at that time—39 per cent.—is explained by the fact that one could vote "No" merely by remaining away from the polls.

<sup>2</sup> This civic interest is not wholly a product of the new order. At the *Reichstag* elections of 1907 and 1912 the vote amounted to 84 per cent. in each case. Of course, it must be kept in mind that the electorate under the Empire was restricted by a higher age qualification (twenty-five years) and by the exclusion of women.

<sup>3</sup> See, for example, Karl Menne, "Bekämpfung der Wahlmüdigkeit," *Zeitschrift für Kommunalwirtschaft*, xvi (February 10, 1926), pp. 136ff; and Dr. Schoppen, *Die Wahlen in Mülheim an der Ruhr*. The latter is a thorough statistical study of voting and non-voting published by the Statistical Office of the city of Mülheim in 1925.

<sup>4</sup> In passing, it may be mentioned that the use of the radio for partisan campaign purposes is not permitted.

<sup>5</sup> For *Reichstag* elections, five hundred signatures are required for the nominating petitions of parties which have no representatives in the existing *Reichstag*.

## Electoral and Popular Votes for President 1789-1924

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# A Mock National Convention

BY ROGER C. HACKETT, BENJAMIN BOSSE HIGH SCHOOL, EVANSVILLE, IND.

The convention years of the great political parties are coming to be *mock-convention* years in the high schools and colleges of the country. A casual scanning of the newspapers of last May and June reveals that the students in many of the leading institutions of the country, including Harvard, Syracuse, and the Culver Military Academy, held such conventions.

About the benefit derived by a student body from witnessing and taking part in such a convention there can be little question. It is agreed that one of the prime purposes of all educative effort is training for citizenship and certainly a demonstration of just how a great national convention is conducted cannot fail to be of interest and benefit in this respect.

Objections to holding mock conventions in public high schools usually fall under three heads: first, they consume too much time both in the preparation and the presentation; second, they are not adapted to small schools; and third, they tend to incite real partisan feeling to such a degree as to defeat their purposes.

The first two of these objections may be easily answered by noting that any projected convention may be made as elaborate or as simple as desired. The actual convention might be made to consume less than one hour in time, or, on the other hand, it might be made to run an almost indefinite number of hours, spread over two or more days, depending on how faithfully all the multitudinous details of a real convention are followed.

It is suggested here, from the experience in holding the convention described below, that a time limit of from two to three and one-half hours should be amply sufficient to present in considerable detail the principle features of a national political convention. In further regard to the second objection, some explanations of how a mock convention may be adapted to the small school will be made hereinafter.

The objection concerning the possible intrusion of unwelcome partisan feeling is more fundamental and the answer to it worked out in Bosse High School is the *raison d'être* of this article. All mock conventions of which the writer has knowledge, described in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK and other periodicals or outlined in pedagogical works on citizenship training, pre-suppose a convention in actual imitation of one of the two real major conventions—usually of an approaching one, as imitating a past one would tend to lessen interest. In such conventions real candidates are put in nomination and the principal convention officials are representative of real politicians. To avoid the partisan feeling inseparable from such conventions it was proposed to make the Bosse convention an imitation of the conventions of *both* parties; that is, have Hoover, Smith, Curtis, Hull, etc., all put in nomination in one convention, but this plan was discarded because of the fear that the anticipated

convention bitterness might be transformed into what would be the equivalent of election bitterness. The only thing to recommend this plan is that neither party is advertised—favorably or otherwise—at the expense of the other in holding the convention.

The problem of eliminating unwelcome partisan feeling was solved by holding what might be described as an *imaginary* national convention instead of a *mock* convention. In brief, a totally new political party, styled the "Republiocratic," was created for the convention and a full set of candidates and leading men was created with it. The hybrid name "Republiocratic" is possibly open to criticism in that it ignores the minor parties, but, of course, it may be pleaded that their national conventions are on much smaller scales than those of the major parties. However, if this criticism does have weight it could be met by adopting some neutral name such as "Liberal," "Conservative," "Union," or "National," although some of these names might be open to certain objections also. It may be explained here that "Republiocratic" was used in place of "Demolican" merely for the sake of euphony.

All details of the "Republiocratic" Convention were worked out by the twenty-five members of the school History Club acting both as a club and through various committees. The first step was an investigation of the actual procedure of national conventions. Various textbooks on American government were consulted and from them was compiled an elaborate "Order of Events," consisting of about seventy-five separate steps and taking up nearly seven typewritten pages. Publicity committees kept the school paper, the daily school bulletin, the local newspapers, the parent-teacher associations, and the faculty informed of the convention plans as they matured.

After some of these preliminary matters had been attended to it was necessary to invent some candidates and to fabricate records and policies for them. It was agreed that four names were sufficient to put in nomination and after some discussion "Judge John Watterson," of "Florida"; "Hobart C. Jones," of "Idaho"; "Governor Albert E. Hanover," of "Oklahoma"; and "Senator George Riley," of "Maine," were the names decided upon. The newspapers "identified" these fictitious personages as Watson, Smith, Hoover, and Reed, despite their supposed states and their intentionally confusing first names. A list of about twenty "character and record" points and the same number of "policy" points was drawn up and then equitably distributed to the four candidates. Thus "Watson" was known as "Honest John," "Riley" had worked his way through Yale, "Hanover" was a World War veteran, and "Jones" had risen from the obscurity of an orphanage to a prominent place in national affairs. "Watson" advocated "preparedness," including a Secretary of Aviation in

the President's cabinet; "Riley" condemned American policy in Nicaragua and stood for the recognition of Soviet Russia; "Hanover" was the champion of effective farm relief and flood relief and stood for government development and ownership of important sources of hydro-electric power, particularly Boulder Dam and Muscle Shoals, and "Jones" demanded a Secretary of Education in the President's cabinet and stricter immigration laws. It was thought best to ignore completely religious issues and the liquor question, and for the "Republicratic" Convention they were non-existent. Each of the four strong pupils selected to make the nominating speeches were given lists of all the points of each candidate and instructed to write a speech about five to eight minutes in length, which would show that his particular man would make a good vote-getter in November ("As goes Maine in September so goes the nation in November," said the delegate who placed "Riley" of that State in nomination), and a good President if elected.

It should be noted here that the element of student popularity did not enter into the convention, as the candidates themselves were not personified and the "delegates" who nominated and seconded them were so selected as to avoid the possibility of cliques, classes, or organizations attempting to "railroad" a nomination. Also each candidate had a campaign manager and an assistant (boy and girl) and their work further helped the convention from degenerating into a popularity contest.

The matters of selecting state delegations, determining the number of votes to be given to each state, and deciding upon the method of voting occasioned considerable worry. Finally, it was decided that each state was to be represented by its normal full voting strength (twice the number of senators and representatives in Congress) and that as far as possible the various "home rooms" were to represent the states. As the students were assigned to "home rooms" according to their credits it was a simple matter to say that the senior "home rooms" should represent the more populous states and the freshman "home rooms" the least populous ones. The only difficulty was that there were forty-eight states to be represented, exclusive of the District of Columbia and the territories, while we had only about thirty "home rooms." This difficulty was overcome by assigning all the upper class "home rooms" two states in as fair a manner as possible. Thus one of the two most advanced senior "home rooms" represented New York and Ohio with a total of 138 votes, while the other represented Illinois and Pennsylvania with 124 votes. All the pupils in the "two state" rooms were definitely assigned to one state or the other. *Regardless of the number of pupil-delegates representing a given state, which number ranged all the way from ten to thirty-five, each state cast the number of votes it had assigned to it in the convention.* This was accomplished by voting by the unit rule, which was interpreted for the purpose of the convention to mean that a mere plurality of a state's actual pupil-delegates determined how all the votes

of the state should be cast. In case of a tie in a state delegation the state's vote was split accordingly. Thus when the fifteen Kentucky pupil-delegates voted five-five-five for "Watterson," "Hanover" and "Jones" each one of these candidates was credited with eight and two-thirds votes, inasmuch as Kentucky was *theoretically* represented with its normal number of twenty-six delegates.

Long before the convention each "home room" "adviser" (teacher) was given a mimeographed explanatory blank (two blanks for the "two-state" rooms) to fill out for the state or states which his room was representing. On this he was requested to insert by a definite time the names of eight pupils to occupy positions of responsibility in the state delegation and as representatives of the state on the "National Committee." The positions to be filled were state chairman, assistant state chairman, standard bearer, national committeeman, national committee woman, and substitutes (a precaution against absences on convention day) for each of the last three. The blank explained briefly the duties of each of these officials and indicated what type of student could best fill each position, although the actual selection was left to the teachers, many of whom allowed their "advisees" to elect their own leaders.

The last week before the convention was a busy time for those who had any considerable part to play therein. In a special meeting the state chairmen and their assistants had their duties carefully explained. In another special meeting attended by all the speakers and *convention* officials (as distinguished from *state* officials) the program was gone over in detail and questions were raised and answered. All the nominating and incidental speeches were censored by a teacher, typed by a commercial student, and memorized by the students who were to deliver them. The mechanical drawing and woodworking departments completed and distributed to the "states" the signs or standards which carried both the state names and the number of votes they were entitled to. These were borne aloft in the convention by the standard bearers and their assistants. Finally, the band was drilled on the marches and patriotic selections it was to render.

More important than any of these activities was the arousing of great student interest through the carrying on of an active "primary campaign" in all of the "states" during the twenty-minute "home room period" which precedes the first class each day. The "campaign managers" and the students who were to make nominating and seconding speeches endeavored to visit each "state," especially the more populous ones, and in short talks persuade the delegates to pledge themselves to their candidate. Political cartoons and "art" posters lined the blackboards and bulletin boards. One day the mimeographed bulletin would exhort the delegates to get behind "Hanover, the Farmer's Friend," while the next it would assure them that the country's salvation depended on the nomination of "Honest John Watterson!"

The convention itself went off without a hitch and with no prompting or interference of any kind from



any member of the faculty despite the fact that it lasted almost three hours. There was no difficulty about seating, as each pupil has a permanent auditorium seat assigned to him at the beginning of the year and all the pupils from one "home room" are seated in a group. Upon entering the "convention hall" all the "delegates" and visitors were presented with a printed program containing the principle steps in the work of the convention. This program is reproduced below.

REGULAR QUADRENNIAL  
NATIONAL NOMINATING CONVENTION  
of the  
"REPUBLICRATIC" POLITICAL PARTY

FRIDAY, MAY 25, 1928  
Evansville, Indiana

1. Band, "Star-Spangled Banner."
2. Call to Order by Chairman of National Committee.
3. Invocation. (Rev. Rake.)
4. Reading of Call for Convention by Secretary of National Committee.
5. Installation of Temporary Officers.
6. "Key Note" Speech by Temporary Chairman.
7. Appointment and Reports of Committees. Adoption of Reports.
8. Installation of Permanent Officers.
9. Speech of Permanent Chairman.
10. Nominating Speeches and Ballotings for the Presidential Candidate.
11. Nominating Speeches and Ballotings for the Vice-Presidential Candidate.
12. Adjournment.

Before proceeding with the work of the convention it is appropriate here to take note of the stage setting. The "National Committee," consisting of ninety-eight members (the District of Columbia and the territories were grouped together for voting and hence they were represented by only one committeeman and one committeewoman) was seated in three semi-circular rows on the large gymnasium-stage. In front of them and to one side was the press table at which sat representatives from the school paper and all the local newspapers. Near here were the seats of the six husky sergeants-at-arms (football boys) who wore appropriate badges. On the other side of the stage sat the three permanent assistant secretaries and the "Secretary of the National Committee." The tables at which they worked were equipped with typewriters, adding machines, and the necessary blanks for tabulating and recording the states' votes, etc. Near the secretaries was the station of the three uniformed boy scout messengers who were charged with the duty of taking all written communications from the secretary to the chairman, who, of course, had his chair and table in the front-center of the stage. A portable blackboard completed the stage furnishings. Originally it was planned to have some sort of broadcasting equipment on the stage, but efforts to get the local broadcasting station to put the convention "on the air" were unsuccessful.

After the preliminaries previously described and the rendering of *America* by the band the convention got down to serious work. The call to order by the "Chairman of the National Committee," the invoca-

tion, delivered by a local minister, and the reading of the official call for the convention (a sonorous document) by the "Secretary of the National Committee," took but a short time. There followed the apparently accidental discovery in the body of the delegates of two famous "Republicrats" who, when called upon by the chairman for speeches, responded in a most gratifying manner. After this the chairman announced the delegates previously selected by the "National Committee" for the temporary chairmanship and the temporary secretaryship. The chairman noted that there was no objection on the part of the convention to these selections and then appointed delegates to escort the new officials to their places of duty on the stage, where, upon their arrival there, they shook hands with the officials of the "National Committee" whom they were supplanting.

There followed the "keynote" speech of the "temporary chairman," which was highly eulogistic of the "Republicratic" party and severely condemnatory of the "Demolicans." After this a resolution calling for the appointment of the customary committees (Credentials, Permanent Organization, Rules and Order of Business, and Resolutions and Platform) in the usual manner, was read from the floor, seconded, and adopted without discussion. Pursuance of the resolution the "Temporary Secretary" called the roll of the states, each "chairman" responding with the names of four of his delegates to serve on these committees. At the conclusion of this rather tedious business the "Temporary Chairman" appointed an executive committee of five previously selected students from each of the large committees of forty-nine and announced an automatic adjournment until the next morning so as to allow the committees time in which to do their work. The members of the executive committees thereupon left the auditorium, ostensibly to consider the questions confronting them and to draw up their reports.

Within thirty seconds after "adjournment" the "Temporary Chairman" tapped with his gavel and announced that the next day had arrived and that the convention was called to order! He then called upon the chairman of the executive committee of the credentials committee to read his previously prepared report, which in the absence of a minority report and objections to the report as read, was declared adopted. Similar treatment was accorded each of the other committee reports. However there was an interlude after the report of the second committee (Permanent Organization) was adopted. The "Permanent Chairman" and "Permanent Secretary" named in this report were escorted to the stage by delegates appointed by the "Temporary Chairman." The new presiding officer thereupon delivered a bombastic speech tracing the imaginary history of the "Republicratic" party. Following this the last two committees made their reports.

The Committee on Rules and Order of Business recommended the two-thirds rule for the first ballot and the majority rule on subsequent ballots with the dropping, after each ballot, of the candidate receiv-

ing the smallest number of votes. As there were to be only four candidates placed in nomination this meant a maximum of three ballots. This committee further recommended that the states cast their votes according to the unit rule and the special plurality rule previously explained.

The Committee on Resolutions and Platform ran true to form in presenting a number of innocuous, platitudinous, temporizing, and issue-straddling "planks" beginning with, "We point with pride," "We view with alarm," "We urge," "We deny," "We assert," "We recommend," "We favor," "We denounce," etc.

After the committee reports were adopted the "Permanent Chairman" directed the "Permanent Secretary" to call the roll of the states for the purpose of securing nominations for the presidency. By the time this was completed four nominating speeches and four seconding speeches had been made. Applause followed each, but attempts to stage parading demonstrations were sternly defeated by the sergeants-at-arms acting under the orders of the presiding officer. Naturally the big majority of the states did not have a candidate to nominate or to second, and in all such cases the state chairman so stated, as it was thought it might be a little too confusing to have one state "yield" to another.

Next came another roll call of the states for the purpose of voting which proved very exciting. More than once the presiding officer had to restrain the vociferous tumult which would follow the casting of the vote of a populous state for a favored candidate. On the first ballot "Watterson" received more than four hundred votes, while "Jones" trailed "Hanover" closely and "Riley" ran a poor fourth. As no candidate received a two-thirds majority another ballot had to be taken. This resulted in "Watterson" picking up not only the votes of "Riley," but many of those of the two candidates remaining in the race and as a result he received more than 800 out of the 1078 votes and was, hence, declared nominated. A resolution to make his nomination unanimous was carried amid cheers.

According to the letter of the program the Vice-Presidential candidate should have been nominated in the same way, but, fearing both an anti-climax and the dragging out of the convention to an unreasonable and wearisome length, it had been arranged that a certain delegate should secure the floor just before the calling of "Alabama" on the nomination roll-call, place "Calhoun Crawford" in nomination and urge that a *viva voce* vote be taken. The chairman, who was, of course, privy to this, apparently fell in with the suggestion and persuaded the convention to accept "Crawford" by a *viva voce* vote as "Watterson's" running mate. This was patently disappointing to some of the "delegates" who evidently hoped for an indefinite continuance of the proceedings, but their incipient opposition to the nomination and the method thereof was promptly quieted by the presiding officer.

The convention was ended when the "Permanent Chairman" announced an adjournment *sine die*.

Some points which would be termed "Convention Sidelights" in the lay press are worth noting. In the first place the band was of inestimable service. Its work at the beginning of the convention has already been noted. From its place in the pit it also took care of the pauses during which the secretaries were calculating the vote totals. It aroused great enthusiasm by bursting into "Dixie," apparently spontaneously, when "Judge John Watterson," of "Florida," was placed in nomination. Finally the band played a last march for the clearing of the auditorium after the adjournment.

During the course of the convention several telegrams of good-will purporting to come from real politicians were brought by the head messenger to the secretary and by her dispatched to the presiding officer who read them to the convention. Incidentally, one of these telegrams was genuine—the leading candidates of both parties had been apprized of the convention, its purposes, and the exact day and hour when it was to be held.

The success of the convention was due in great measure to the fact that the three successive presiding officers had strict instructions to recognize no one not on the list of speakers, motion makers, etc., and to direct the chief sergeant-at-arms to eject forcibly any "delegate" who should attempt to continue on the floor after being called out of order. The only untoward incident of this nature was the abortive attempt of a humorist to place "Major Hoople" in nomination.

One of the criteria of extra-curricular activities is the number of pupils who participate therein. According to this standard the "Republiocratic" Convention registered almost 100 per cent., inasmuch as almost all the students had some special parts to play, at least theoretically as in the case of service on the "National Committee" and the four convention committees, and, of course, *every* student, with the exception of those seated on the stage and in the band, was a "delegate."

It is suggested that almost any high school, regardless of the number enrolled, could use the general convention plan outlined above, by making the state delegations sufficiently large or small as the case may be, and adjusting the other details accordingly. Of course, a mock or imaginary national convention is peculiarly appropriate in the spring of a presidential year, but it would hardly be out of place at some other time.

In conclusion the "Republiocratic" Convention was certainly profitable educationally to Bosse High School and, moreover, it was inexpensive financially, inasmuch as the total cost to the History Club was less than \$3.00. Finally, it was interestingly and even excitingly realistic—as one newspaper had it the only thing lacking to make the illusion seem complete was a dense cloud of tobacco smoke lazily drifting over the heads of the "delegates!"

# The Use of Teaching and Learning Aids in the Social Studies

BY LOUIS A. TOHILL, INSTRUCTOR IN SOCIAL STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA HIGH SCHOOL

Within the last few years there has become apparent a marked change in textbook writing in the social studies. Slowly the text, which was an accumulation of generalizations and little more, is yielding its place to one that attempts to explain and to enliven the subject. This change has made necessary an increase in the size of the book and a corresponding increase in the cost of publication and, consequently, of education. It seems entirely proper, therefore, at this time to consider the different items that appear in a textbook in the social studies with the purpose of seeking a justification for their selection and for the amount of space they occupy. Since the selection of subject-matter and the emphasis to be placed upon the different kinds of content material is now being subjected to investigation and to criticism, it will not be necessary to consider that here. It is rather to the numerous teaching and learning aids found in high school textbooks that attention is directed; and, since these aids are used in no other subject of the high school curriculum, probably, so profusely as in texts in the social studies, discussion will be limited to these texts.

A mere cursory survey of texts in the social studies will disclose the fact that a large amount of space is devoted to these teaching and learning aids. A rather careful analysis of eight representative texts in the social studies of recent publication shows that from 9 per cent. to 41 per cent. of the total space is allotted to these aids; the mean is  $32\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

Moreover, a careful consideration of the aids appearing in these texts, and others like them, often fails to discover any justification for the use of many of them, or, what is more fundamental, any general principle governing their selection, unless it be that of custom or the author's whim. It is hardly necessary to remark that every map, picture, outline, question, or other aid found in a textbook should be able to justify its appearance there, unequivocally, in usefulness to the pupil or to the teacher. The following remarks constitute an attempt to discuss from a personal point of view the selection of teaching and learning aids, and to offer some suggestions which should, it seems, govern that selection.

For the purpose of this discussion these aids may be divided into two general classes: those which seem intended primarily for the use of the teacher and those which aid the pupil rather than the teacher, although the line separating the two classes is not clearly defined. The aids to learning may also be further distinguished. A tentative classification, such as the following, may clarify these statements.

## A. Aids to learning:

1. To supplement information.
2. To facilitate study.
3. To arouse interest.

## 4. To clarify generalizations of the text.

## B. Aids to teaching.

Illustrations of the aids to learning which supplement the information which is in the body of the text are notes at the bottom of the page or at the end of the chapter, legends which explain pictures, pictures which tell a story, appendixes which contain important documents, and maps. Aids which facilitate study are indexes, tables of contents, chapter and paragraph titles, marginal references, marginal descriptions of content, summaries, guidance outlines, variations in print, as italics or heavily leaded type, fact questions, pronunciation of names, etc. Aids which arouse interest include pictures, anecdotes, the so-called sidelights, suggestive or thought questions, and illustrations which make applications of principles. Aids which are intended to clarify the generalizations of the text are graphs, and tables of data. Aids to teaching consist of reading topics and reports, bibliographies, fiction lists, introductory paragraphs, exercises which make applications of principles, and suggestions to teachers.

As has been indicated, it is often difficult to ascertain the principles upon which the author of a text has based his selection of aids; or, if the principle can be discovered, it is difficult to justify its use. In the matter of the selection of references for supplementary reading, for example, it is frequently obvious that the author of the text under consideration has no understanding of what the high school children for whom he has written the book can do or what high school libraries can afford to buy; that is, he has been thinking of the high school classes as if they were his college classes and the high school library as if it were his college library. These references frequently indicate books and periodicals which are not found on high school library shelves and for which little justification can be found for placing them there. In some recently published texts in American history may be found references to the *Harvard Law Review*, Richardson: *Messages and Papers of the Presidents*, Prescott: *Conquest of Peru*, the *Chronicles of America* series, Henry Adams: *History of the United States*, Hodge: *Handbook of the American Indian*, Catterall: *Second Bank of the United States*, Ripley: *Trusts, Pools, and Corporations*, McCaleb: *Conspiracy of Aaron Burr*, Osgood: *The American Colonies in the Eighteenth Century*, and many like them. Some of these books and periodicals are suited to the university seminar only; some treat a period so brief that their purchase by most high school libraries cannot be justified; some are so expensive that only the occasional high school will possess them; and some cannot be used with the best results by high school students because of the difficult nature of the material contained in them.



For example, a very short time, if any, in a single recitation will be assigned to the conquest of Peru or the conspiracy of Aaron Burr; the *Chronicles of America* series, many volumes of which are excellent for high school use, is sold, as yet, in complete sets only, which makes it so expensive that for many high schools the budget for American history would be anticipated for many years to buy it; Osgood's scholarly work cannot be used satisfactorily by high school students; and the messages and papers of the Presidents that are of worth in high school teaching can be found in better form elsewhere. Nor are these exceptions to the practice of selecting references, but are fairly typical of common usage. In spite of Mr. Henry Johnson's calling attention to this disregard for children's abilities and high school libraries' resources more than a dozen years ago, the same faults yet persist. Let the author confine his references to a small number of books that combine as far as possible the characteristics of giving supplemental information, arousing interest, giving a sense of reality, and acquainting the student with historical literature. Or better, perhaps, let him delegate the selection of the references to some capable high school teacher in the social studies who knows what children can use and what high school libraries can buy. Every useless reference occupies space that can be well used in a more effective manner.

Neither can one say that the selection of many of the numerous pictures which occupy so much of the space in some of our high school texts in the social studies displays any consistent selective principle or can be justified by any discriminating judge of the use of space. Why should valuable space in a text be given to such a picture as that of the State and War building in Washington, for example? What valuable residue is there in the pupil's mind after having seen it? Similarly, can an author defend the insertion in a text of such pictures as the tomb of Cyrus the Great, the rift in the mountain where the Delphic oracle was consulted, a stamp-making machine, bags of money in the Federal treasury, cannon firing at an unseen target, a fort of only local interest, fanciful pictures of the signing of the Mayflower Compact or of the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut, or pictures of unimportant men or of men of momentary, even if contemporary, importance?

Certainly some of the principles which should govern the selection of pictures for a text in the social studies are: the picture should tell a story worth the telling; it should illustrate stages of development or progress in the thing portrayed; it should contribute to the feeling of reality of an important event; it should represent a place or an object of general knowledge; or it should be the picture of a man of outstanding note in his field of endeavor. Surely, the pictures of seven or eight of the Presidents, a smaller number of statesmen and of pioneers in special fields would suffice for the representation of persons in a high school American history text. Sometimes one is curious to know what value there is in using the pictures of men that

appear in some of our texts unless it be to show the changes in tontorial customs.

This is not necessarily a plea that less space be assigned to pictures; indeed, it may be true that more space should be used for them; but it is a plea that care and thought be used in their selection. Whether we must depend upon judgments based upon experience alone, as we have in the past, or can expect experimental investigation in the future to determine usage in the matter of aids it is difficult to say and probably immaterial. At present the authors of college texts seem to have agreed that pictorial aids to learning need not be used in their books; it remains for the authors of high school texts to determine with more care than they are now employing how much use they shall make of the same aids and to consider the needs of the different years of the high school in this matter.

Similar comments may be made on other teaching and learning aids. Little excuse can be offered for the use of fact questions on the text found at the chapter ends of many books. They should not be used as a teaching aid, for the teacher should be sufficiently competent to formulate questions better suited to secure the particular bit of desirable information from his particular class; nor is their value as aids to learning to study or to review unquestionable. There are better ways to learn to do these things. It would be a deplorable situation for teacher and pupil, if it were necessary for a high school textbook to include such questions as, "What is value?" or such statements as, "Define the term market," for their best teaching and learning. Aids to study should appear in the text; such as, guidance outlines, incomplete tables, lists of related items to assemble, or comparisons to be made, but space should not be given to asking questions which the student should have learned in the grades to ask himself without being prompted. On the other hand, most texts attach too little importance to questions and exercises which require the use of information in making applications to matters of every-day life. In the texts in the social sciences, economics, civics, and sociology is this deficiency especially noted.

Whether tables of data should be given and the pupil asked to draw graphs from them or whether the completed graphs should be presented in the text depends, probably, on the importance of the material to be presented; if it is of very great importance, the making of the graph will assist in making permanent the information; if only a general impression of change is desired, the graph may be prepared by the author.

It seems desirable, too, that texts in the early years of the high school be well equipped with aids which facilitate study. It is in these years that we must emphasize the teaching of methods of study in the social studies, how to get the gist of the subject from the paragraph, how to use a book to find material, and how to read a map. Plain, simple maps, adequate indexes and tables of contents, chapter and

paragraph titles, variations in print which denote emphasis on words and phrases, and similar devices aid in doing these things.

This commentary on teaching and learning aids could go on and on, but enough has been said to call attention to the need for careful consideration of their selection and use.

Note: The texts analyzed and the percentage of space given to teaching and learning aids were: Kinsman, Economics, or the Science of Business, 9 per cent.; Faubel, Principles of Economics, 23 per cent.; Munro and Ozanne, Social Civics, 29 per cent.; Muzzey, An American History, 32 per cent.; Mace, American History, 33 per cent.; Hulbert, United States History, 35 per cent.; Hill, Community Life and Civic Problems, 39 per cent.; and Magruder, American Government, 41 per cent.

## How to Study

BY ESTHER GODSHAW CLARKE, HEAD OF SOCIAL SCIENCE DEPARTMENT, JOHN C. FREMONT HIGH SCHOOL, LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

The "How To Study" devices offered in this article have been developed through actual classroom practice. They reflect an attempt to "think aloud" with students, an effort to aid them to read the printed page alone with economy of time and with real understanding.

Any student of any period of history may use these devices to aid in selecting the salient facts of a topic and to fix them in his mind by this logical method of study. He will also acquire a point of view as well as a method of study.

No student should confuse this method of study with the romance of history as it is found in the pages of the skilled writers of the record of the past. He should read with these suggested points in mind to clarify his reading. To know these facts alone without the word pictures of the great historians would be to know the skeleton without the beauty of the body.

Thanks are due to the members of the Social Science Department of John C. Fremont High School for criticism of the material presented, and to the principal, Wm. L. Richer, for its publication.

### STUDY SUGGESTIONS

1. If possible, study in a room apart from the rest of the family. If this is impossible, study in a room where others disturb you least.
2. Try to study at a regular time, preferably after your meal has been digested.
3. Keep your "tools" (text, paper, pen, ink, dictionary, and atlas) together in order that you may not need to stop, once you have begun your study.
4. Arrange a good reading light and provide for a circulation of air.
5. Be sure you know just what you are to do. Consult your lesson assignment before you begin to study.
6. Don't let your mind wander, and don't be discouraged if the lesson is difficult.
7. If you find you cannot concentrate take a brief rest, then try again.
8. Have an optimistic attitude that you can master the assignment. Take an interest in your work and try to realize how this study will serve you in later years. Even though you may forget the specific facts of the lesson, your power to make comparisons, contrasts, see cause and effect, etc., will grow.
9. If you honestly observe these suggestions, and fail to master your assignment, be sure to let the teacher know you have tried.
10. A teacher judges effort by prompt co-operation in preparation of maps, papers, etc. Evidence of effort is preferable to a mere statement, "I tried."

### STUDY DIRECTIONS

1. Read the assignment rapidly to get the main ideas.
2. Look up new words in the dictionary.
3. Locate unfamiliar places on the map.
4. Use the pronouncing index for proper names.
5. Find the topic sentence of each paragraph.
6. When provided, use the questions at the end of the chapter.
7. Tell in your own words the chief points in the lesson.
8. Find the relation between the new lesson and the previous lesson, and state it clearly to yourself.
9. Can you find any relation between the material you knew previously? Can you make any comparisons?
10. Look for cause and effect always.
11. Look for significance of events.
12. Look for applications in everyday life of what you are learning. (In architecture, in advertisements, in literature, motion pictures, etc.)
13. Don't "read it over." THINK IT THROUGH.
14. Summarize the chief points in the lesson in brief notes to be used for review before the recitation.
15. If the lesson is a memory exercise, go over the selection as a whole and repeat your efforts until you have mastered the exercise.

The following study plans are designed to be general enough to aid a student in any course in history to find the salient features of the topic under discussion.

### HOW TO STUDY ANY TOPIC

When.  
Where.  
Why.  
What.  
How ended.  
Significance or importance.

### ESTIMATE OF A NATION'S SIGNIFICANCE

Name.  
Location.  
Dates of existence.  
Dates of supremacy.  
Causes for rise of nation.  
Important dates and events in the evolution of the nation.  
Important men and women.  
Important relics, if any.  
Causes for decline of nation.  
Significance in World History.  
Effect of the national contribution upon our history.

### ANY FOREIGN AFFAIR

When.  
Issue involved.  
Countries involved.  
By whom settled.  
By what method settled.  
Outcome.  
Significance.

## HOW TO STUDY A CHARACTER

Date, century.  
Name.  
Nativity.  
Adjectives that fit, with statements of proof of each.  
Why remembered.  
Lesson taught by his or her life.

## HOW TO STUDY A PERIOD OR ERA

Dates.  
Name.  
Factors that produced the period.  
Distinguishing features of period.  
Important events of period.  
Important personages.  
Influence on our period.

## PRESIDENTIAL CHART

Date of election.  
Dates of administration  
Name.  
Party.  
Vice-president.  
Unsuccessful parties and their candidates.  
Campaign issues.  
Important events of administration.  
These headings should be written above the red line on the folder sheet, which should be turned sidewise for the chart. Neatness may be secured with the use of a ruler and by avoiding crowding.

## SCIENTISTS' AND INVENTORS' CHART

Date of service	Name	Nativity	Service	Results
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## EXPLORERS' CHART

Date of exploration	Name	Nativity	For whom explored	Where	Results
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## AMERICAN IDEALS CHART

Date of incidents	Person	Ideal involved	Occasion	Significance	Result *
1636	Williams	Freedom of worship	Founding of Rhode Island	Separation of Church and State	

\*(1) A new principle toleration. (2) First Amendment to the Constitution.

## HOW TO STUDY A WAR

Name and dates.  
Causes:  
Remote.  
Immediate.  
Important events:  
Military battles.  
Naval battles.  
Sieges.  
Leaders on each side:  
Political.  
Military.  
Naval.  
Influence of geography on the war:  
As a cause.  
On events.  
Treaty of Peace:  
Date.  
Name.  
Provisions.  
Results:  
At the time.  
On the present.

## HOW TO STUDY A TREATY

Name and date.  
Issue(s) involved.  
Countries involved.  
Negotiated by.  
Provisions.  
Date of abrogation, if abrogated.  
Significance.

## HOW TO STUDY A TARIFF

Date.  
Name.  
Type (high or low, protective or for revenue only).  
Purpose.  
Provisions.  
Results.  
Date set aside.  
Superseded by.

## HOW TO STUDY A BANKING ACT

Date.  
Name.  
Purpose.  
Provisions.  
Result.  
Length of time in force.

## HOW TO STUDY STATISTICS

1. Make a chart form showing in separate columns the various items compared, the years of comparison, and the amount of growth discovered by analysis. For example:  
The national debt of \$90,000,000 in 1821 was greatly reduced, till by 1834 it was entirely discharged. Population grew from 10,000,000 in 1821 to 12,000,000 in 1830 and 16,000,000 in 1837. The most amazing advances in population were in the west, where Michigan, in the same interval of sixteen years, increased her 10,000 twentyfold, Ohio her 600,000 over twofold, Indiana her 150,000 fourfold. In the twenties the land sales averaged only slightly above \$1,000,000; in 1834 they reached \$4,800,000 and in 1837 \$24,000,000.

	1821	1830	1834	1837
National Debt	\$90,000,000			
Population	10,000,000	20% increase	60% increase	
Pop. Michigan	10,000			20 fold
Pop. Ohio	600,000			2 fold
Pop. Indiana	150,000			4 fold
Land Sales	\$1,000,000	5 fold		24 fold

## HOW TO MAKE AN ORAL REPORT

1. Make note of the author, title, and page of your reference. Preface your report with this definite information in order that your hearers may know your authority and be able to read further if they are interested in your report.
2. Prepare your report very much as you would a regular recitation in regard to new words, places, pronunciation, etc.
3. Be sure if you use unfamiliar words that you make the meaning of them clear to your hearers.
4. Do not read your report, but give it in your own words, using notes to aid you to discuss in an orderly way.
5. Be prepared to answer questions on it.
6. A summary at the close will aid your hearers to remember what you have told them.

## COLLATERAL READING CARD—SAMPLE FORM

Name	Brown, Frank	Period	II	Date	March 1, 1926
Grade	AII	Title		pp.	
Author					
1. Channing		History of the U. S.		22-27	30-47
2.					
3.					

Classification No.

973:16v.4

Class

United States History

Explanation: The classification number is found on the outside of the volume or on the book pocket. It is placed there by the Library, and the interpretation of it is to be found in the Library Manual. For example, 920 (or 92) is to be interpreted as Biography, 930 as Ancient History, etc. If the number on your reference book is not listed, go back to the nearest tens' place, and if that is not listed in the Manual go back to the nearest hundreds' place. These numbers are standard throughout all libraries which use the Dewey Decimal System.



# The Use of a Time Line in History Teaching

BY MIRIAM B. UNDERHILL, MARY C. WHEELER SCHOOL, PROVIDENCE, R. I.

The intelligent comprehension of time relationships is surely a worth while aim of history teaching. Often a teacher is dismayed to realize that "a long time ago" may be to one pupil the period of the Civil War, to another the French Revolution, to another the days of Cæsar. Most distressing of all, is to hear that a child who has never seen Wilson or Roosevelt considers such recent days "a long time ago."

An important task of the teacher is to be specific in the use of words referring to time, and to illustrate them in some visual manner which will focus a pupil's attention. There should be an active association in his mind with the mention of a thousand years, a hundred years, or even a hundred thousand years.

To accomplish such a purpose a time line is a valuable aid. A time line may be of various materials and serve to illustrate differing periods. I have used a line drawn on a blackboard, a possibility in any class. However, for a more concrete, live, and interest-compelling method, there is this suggestion. Procure an ordinary, lightweight clothes line and several dozen plain wooden clothespins; such as may be obtained in any hardware store, or in most of the establishments maintained by Mr. Woolworth. The line should be long enough to stretch across the room. In my present classroom, a twenty-five foot line just reached across the front.

With ink, I then marked off the line into segments six inches apart. These were destined to serve as years, or periods of years, according to the subject under discussion. With the aid of the clothespins we were then ready to try to make clear to the class the continuity of time and the place of people and events in their proper relationship to each other.

There are two lessons with a time line which may properly serve as introductory to a history course. Suppose we accept five thousand years ago as a reasonable estimate of the time when man began to make progress in the simplest ways. Then we can illustrate most startlingly for our classes the comparatively few years of the world's existence, in which we have had historic time as distinguished from pre-historic. If our time line is fifty feet long, let one end be 500,000 B. C. and the other end 1928. Then, approximately, each foot will represent 10,000 years. All the long period before the last twelve inches on our line will show that man was struggling for thousands of years, before he had progressed so far that he had domesticated animals, used food grains, or built himself wooden huts. The last six inches will correspond to the years since he has developed writing, and only three inches the time since he has been a student of science. As for the use of a printing press and the use of steam power, they will be one-

half and one-fourth of the last inch, respectively.

Enter the clothespins. In red, blue, or other colored ink or crayons, let a named clothespin mark each period. If the class is familiar with scientific terms, each of the ages in the progress of life may be located with a pin marked with the proper term.

Another introductory lesson may be the choosing of fifteen or twenty outstanding events of world history. The names of the persons, places, or dates may be printed on clothespins. For this exercise, the line corresponds to historic time. The first event may well be one of the earliest dates in history, as, the beginnings of the use of copper by the Egyptians, or the earliest known Egyptian king. The opposite end of the line holds a clothespin bearing the name of a prominent public figure of 1928. Members of the class are handed one or more clothespins and in turn each pupil places his event in the proper place.

The class should estimate how much time is to be covered and, therefore, how many years each segment of the line should represent. To distinguish between B. C. and A. D., clothespins with red lettering may represent events in B. C., and clothespins with blue lettering may represent events occurring A. D. Attention should be called to the relation to other periods, of the particular span of years which the class is to treat in detail.

For instance, when we were grasping ideas of time in world history, my Ancient history classes noticed that the period on which they were to spend their year of study included the B. C. period and 800 years beyond. This would form the first step of the stairs, on which in the following years they were to mount to the present, via medieval and modern European history and American history.

After grasping these facts, our same line took on a new character and became the briefer field of Ancient history. Each segment of line in this case performed a number of different functions. After our study of Oriental history, each pupil chose a character or event, prepared her clothespin and brought it to class. These were then exchanged with other pupils, placed properly on the line, and there before us, in easily assimilated form, was the sequence of events from the Sumerians in Early Babylonia to the Persian Empire.

As the year went on, the line bore clothespins bearing the story of the Greek peninsula from Aegean civilization through the days of Alexander. Similarly, the story of the Romans appeared. By way of review, in final lessons the line became the whole field of Ancient history again, and we saw before us the orderly progress of Orientals, Greeks, and Romans.

Comparative chronological order among these people was made easier to understand. Thutmose III, of Egypt, his name marked in bright green, was

found to belong in the same time segment as the Grand Age of Crete; and Nebuchadnezzar of Chaldea, in blue, and Solon of Greece, in yellow, were found to be making their contributions to history at the same time.

Before closing our work we again used the line to represent the entire historic period and noticed our studied segment in its relation to world history. Such a time line may beneficially serve as a review exercise when pupils strive to locate as many clothespins as possible. It may be the scene of a contest between two sides of the class. One side may provide themselves with pins bearing the names of persons, the

other group with names of the events associated, the aim being to see which side is able to place the greater number correctly.

In like manner, the teacher of history can readily see how the fields of medieval or modern history may be utilized. Such methods as described above have been used in the senior high school, particularly with sophomores and juniors, and with success in the junior high. It will be readily seen that a time line is not limited to the locating of dates. People, events, social progress, political changes, industrial advance, all may move in a colorful procession down through the years.

## Captured—Our National Capital

BY DOROTHY FRANCES BARNES, B. S., HIGH SCHOOL, STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA

Not from the standpoint, such as the British did in 1814, but from an intellectual standpoint.

The idea, like most ideas, grew from a tiny seed of thought into a realization.

Fresh out of college, in the spring of 1925, and bubbling over with new and untried ideas, I started into my position which I now hold, with many old, and untried, and perhaps unheard of ideas.

At the close of my first year of teaching I critically examined my work to see wherein I could improve it. Among this list of personal dissatisfactions, which I found with myself and subjects, was the study of the presentation of the work of our National Government.

It is true that our state civics text contains a chapter on our various government buildings, telling what functions of legislation and administration are carried on in each. And although I used the same suggested lesson plans as I had proved successful in practice teaching and in presentation of actual class work in other subjects, yet personally I was dissatisfied.

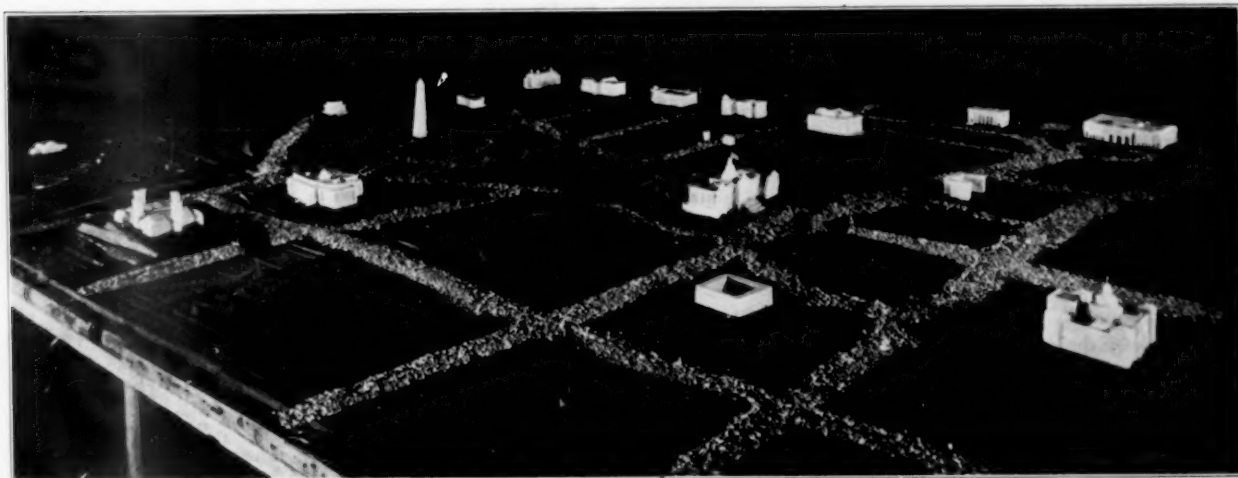
When I went to Philadelphia in the summer of

1926, as one of the five delegates from Oklahoma to attend the National Education Association Convention, I also went looking for ideas by which history (and other social studies) could be captured effectively and permanently. And like the fairy story of the knights sent by the king to look for flowers and weeds, I found what I was looking for—"Idea Developer."

The school exhibit in the Philadelphia High School attracted my attention, especially the projects of the Medieval Castle and similar projects. Various soap projects attracted my attention, such as the hanging gardens. But yet the idea had not arrived, it took time for it to grow and ripen to maturity.

On this trip east, my mother and I visited many places of historical interest between our home in North Central Oklahoma and Philadelphia, including points on the coast each side of the Quaker city.

A visit to the national capital proved very inspirational, and fruitful, as well as setting aglow new patriotism for our country. While visiting here (and other historical places) I secured pictures of the



Plan of City of Washington with Buildings Made of Soap

various places and buildings, intending to use them when we studied the various national government buildings in civics and American history. So the second year the pictures were used as intended.

But by the third year of my teaching experience my idea and desire for a way to really capture the information regarding our national capital materialized into a plan, which I carried out in my school work this year. This realized plan and dream is shown by the accompanying photograph. Briefly, the idea was this, in studying our national capital, why not have each member of the civics class carve one of our national government buildings? I completed a list of the most important government buildings, and permitted my students to select their building the first day we met in September, determining a scale of 1 inch to 50 feet.

Soap was to be used in the construction of the models. Work was started in September and the buildings were not collected until after Christmas vacation, when the ground plan was made and the buildings placed in their relative positions.

The amount of time consumed in making the various buildings varied from  $4\frac{1}{2}$  hours to 14 days. Many students spent vacations on working upon their project, and in a class questionnaire 14 out of 17 said that they enjoyed the work. Soap carving was new to all of them. Nineteen of the government buildings were carved and placed—among them being the Capitol, Congressional Library, U. S. Representatives Office Building, Senate Office Building, Patent Office, Treasury Building, White House, State, War and Navy Building, Pan-American Union Building, Lincoln Memorial, Washington Monument, Lee Home

at Arlington, Smithsonian Institute, and New National Museum—pictures being secured for the carving from my personal collection made while on my trip to Washington, and from reference sources such as World Book, Book of Knowledge, and Lincoln Library.

The cost of the various buildings ranged from 32 cents to \$2.20, the average cost being 78 cents. The total cost of the buildings was \$10.95. The estimated cost of the platform for the city plan was \$30.00, the lumber being donated by a business man.

The method of fastening the numerous pieces of soap together varied with the individual student, the neatest work of fastening was by a girl who grated her soap, melted it by hot water, and running it through a sieve, used it as a paste. This was more satisfactory than glue, because it left no discoloration on the soap model. Drawing the ground plan on a board and fastening soap on the base with nails and filling the holes with soap paste before carving was also found quite satisfactory.

The tools used varied from string, orange sticks, toothpicks, hairpins, finger nails, nutpicks, nail files, and screw drivers to safety razor blades and pocket knives, depending upon the different individuals and various models.

From the standpoint of an instructor, I might add that at times the work was discouraging, and at times I questioned the worth of my idea. But now that all is said and done, I feel that all the extra time and responsibility was compensated for when the pupils unanimously stated that they better understood their National capitol and their study of the functions of the National Government by this method.

## Eighth Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies

REPORT BY THE SECRETARY, PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON

The eighth annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies was held in the auditorium of the Old Central Lutheran Church, Minneapolis, Minnesota, on July 2 and 3, 1928. Owing to the illness of President Gambrill and the absence in Europe of Vice-President Stone, Professor A. C. Krey, of the University of Minnesota, presided. The auditorium, which seats more than four hundred people, was filled to capacity and the program, arranged by a committee under the Chairmanship of Professor Krey, proved to be one of unusual interest and profit.

The general theme of the convention of the National Education Association, with which the National Council was meeting as one of its departments, was Training for Citizenship. The first session of the National Council meetings dealt directly with this general theme and the second dealt more specifically with the teaching of the social studies as a means of training for citizenship and civic intelligence.

State Commissioner of Education J. M. McConnell introduced the discussion on the afternoon of July 2d with some general impressions of Education for Citizenship drawn from a long experience as a teacher of history and as an educational administrator. He believes that the teaching of history ought to make pupils familiar with the evolution of the problems of society and the stream of human development; and that it should result in a constructive forward-looking attitude on the part of graduates of the public schools. He has little sympathy with an exaggeration of the importance of historic individuals by emotional praise or blame; but feels that such characters are important in civic education only in so far as they personify the great movements for human betterment in which they labored.

He spoke of efforts on the part of some legislators to secure the teaching of the Constitution of the United States through the enactment of statutes making its teaching compulsory. It is not the text of



the Constitution in which the educator is so much interested; it is the spirit of its origin and development as a means of promoting human welfare. The teaching of the Constitution must result in a sympathetic and appreciative attitude toward our efforts to bring peace and justice to large numbers of people. Only those teachers who sympathize with its spirit and respect the efforts of those who have worked for its improvement can profitably direct the teaching of it. Such teachers will see to it that this important element in American history will have proper recognition whatever the history course may be called. Others should neither be required nor permitted to teach it.

Two papers were read on the educational aspects of international affairs and the training of pupils in right attitudes toward other nations than their own. Mr. H. E. Wilson, of the University of Chicago High School, spoke on the Development of International Attitudes in the Schools; and Miss Sylva T. Hanson, of the University of Iowa High School, on the Educational Policies of Religious and Peace Organizations.

Mr. Wilson raised three questions which are implied in the following answers to them: It is both wise and necessary to instruct the rising generations in international affairs. The best method of giving such instruction seems to be indicated by the objectives we would set up for it—friendly interest in and a responsibility for the maintenance of civilized life, which is always placed in jeopardy by international strife or even misunderstanding; an intelligent attitude toward the interdependence of the nations of the earth; and information about the methods used by enlightened nations to solve international problems. Assuming these answers to the first two questions, the third presents some practical difference of opinion. Mr. Wilson thinks it is not wise to set up separate courses in the schools for international problems for the very simple reason that there is no time available for them. Elective courses will probably miss the very pupils most in need of this type of instruction for such pupils will not be interested enough to elect them. It is better to make sure that international problems, sympathy, and international organization be presented in due proportion to their importance in the courses in elementary civics, world history, modern history, and the four-year problems courses. If definite time and effort be given in these courses and if general reading on international affairs be assigned by the teacher, it is likely that all will be done that conditions now make possible in this direction.

Miss Hanson limited herself largely to an exposition of what prominent peace and religious organizations are doing to develop a sympathetic attitude toward other peoples on the part of those who dwell in the United States. It seems evident to her that such societies are making a serious effort to develop such an attitude on the part of school children. Persons working in these societies feel that attitudes contrary to their peace ideal have been fostered by

textbooks now in use and they have made investigations which seemed to them to reveal that revision is necessary. Essay contests have been conducted and visits of various sorts to foreign countries have been promoted. Appeals have been made to teachers, to whom have been sent specially prepared courses of study.

Quoting a report of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace for 1927, Miss Hanson says, "there are not wanting signs that public opinion in the United States is roused from the lethargy that has marked it since the war excitement died away and is becoming ready to support....policies of international co-operation, international association and international peace." She then goes on to describe the criticism which has been levelled at those who are working for international peace by those who oppose such efforts. One difficulty in the way of understanding or weighing this movement in education pushed forward by persons, many of whom are neither students of history nor educators, is that there is a large amount of emotional excitement in it and that its advocates tend to expect from the schools what they ought not properly be expected to do.

On the other hand, the narrow "patriot" and the politician wishing to appeal to the prejudices of groups of his voters both attack the movement for enlightened international relations with a vehemence out of all proportion to the good intentions or the intelligence of those who make the attack. It would doubtless be wise for propagandist associations of all sorts to pass a self-denying ordinance that they will leave the schools alone to do their work unmolested; and for the public to let the axe-grinding politicians understand that one of the unpardonable sins on the part of political organizations is to involve the school children in their fights.

Professor T. C. Blegen, of the University of Minnesota, carried the audience away into the poetic atmosphere of the best that history has to offer. No abstract can do justice to the delightful impression he gave of the *Historical Backgrounds of Minnesota and the Northwest*, but reference to a recent cartoon may give a hint of the feast he laid before his hearers.

This cartoon "pictured a group of people on the observation car of a fast train crossing the western plains. These people were looking with dull eyes at the country through which they were passing and one of them exclaimed, 'What a stupid, uninteresting region.' In the cartoon, however, could be discerned in shadowy outlines the figures of dashing soldiers, picturesque Indians, trappers and traders, voyageurs, covered wagons, and plodding pioneers. The figures represented the human drama that lay back of the region, the story of the western march, the epic of American history. The eyes of the tourists, however, were closed to all save externals; their imagination did not enliven the scene with figures of the past; and so it seemed neither interesting nor significant to them."

He then proceeded to picture what the reader of

history sees back of Minnesota and the Northwest. The coming of the French, the Spanish, English and Scandinavian elements were all outlined in artistic sketches which could not but awaken in the teacher of history a new pride in his work and the pleasures as well as the profit to be derived from it. His account of the origin of the name of Lake Itasca out of *veritas caput* by a pioneer, who respected Latin, but knew little of it, striking off the first and last syllables of the Latin phrase his more scholarly friend gave him, is a sample of the work of the practical pioneer. One may hope that this paper will certainly find early publication, at least for those who visited the land of ten thousand lakes made by the giant feet of Paul Bunyan's mythical great blue ox as he pulled his load of logs through the primeval forests.

The session of July 3d was introduced by Miss Mary S. Gold, of the University of Minnesota High School, who gave a demonstration of the *Adaptation of the Contract Method to Supervised Study*. The demonstration occupied an hour and the audience, participating in the demonstration, were manifestly deeply interested in the practical pedagogical exposition. Miss Gold does not fully accept the title "Contract Method," because she does not require her pupils to agree to complete a particular project at a particular time. Her purpose is to teach pupils how to study. Short units of work are assigned, to each of which the pupil devotes seven or eight days in which no oral recitation takes place. Four such blocks are completed in a year, thus taking about five of the thirty-six weeks of the course. There remains plenty of time for recitations of various sorts and for other methods of teaching. The purpose of this effort, to repeat, is to help the pupils to learn how to study.

Ample mimeographed directions are furnished to the pupils; study questions direct their interest; bibliographies and reading lists guide them to the best and most available material; considerable collections of books are brought to the study room; a section of the textbook is assigned to the project; pupils do their textbook work mainly at home and those who do this part of the work perfectly get a grade of C. Higher grades are earned by additional work. The question was raised whether a pupil who does the textbook assignment perfectly should not receive a high mark. Miss Gold's answer was, that pupils who do the textbook assignment perfectly always do creditable work with the additional reading. If it should happen that a pupil merely crams up the textbook, he would get only the mark that mere cramming entitles him to. The marking is not competitive, the whole system of grading the projects being worked out in advance simply enough for the pupils to understand it and the whole class might conceivably receive perfect marks. Such topics as "America as a World Power," "The Partition of Africa," "Peter the Great," and "Modern Russia," are offered in the long list that is furnished; and the topics are divided into classes of more and less

difficulty, the grading being based on the kind of topic completed.

Miss Ruth M. Johnson, of the University of Wisconsin High School, read a paper on an effort to provide for individual differences of ability on the part of pupils. She discussed the Differentiated Unit Plan, as worked out at the University of Wisconsin under the leadership of Professor H. L. Miller. Differences of ability seem to her to be inevitable, whatever the previous training of the pupils may have been. To ignore the differences is simply to place pupils where they will either be discouraged by work that is too hard for them, or bored by work that is not hard enough.

All of the pupils are put together without reference to their ability when the work of the course begins. The work of the year may be divided into eight or ten units, more or less, depending on its nature. Levels of work are offered to the pupils and these levels lead to grades of A, B, or C, the latter indicating mere passing, being equivalent to D in many schools. The plan recognizes three general levels of excellence within the same working group. The teacher discusses the enterprise by way of directing the work of all the pupils. The purpose and general content of the new unit are explained, the relation of this unit to those which have gone before, and the method of study, which latter is discussed by both teacher and pupils. As much pupil initiative and suggestion is secured as is practically possible.

Mimeographed copies of the plan for study in the C level and suggestions for the B and A level are distributed. These must be prepared before the class has discussed the enterprise and so are not ideal. Skill must be used to prevent the class from leaning too heavily on the leadership of the teacher and neglecting to give some scope to their own imagination and initiative. All pupils then begin to work in the same unit, each at his own rate of speed—reading the text, supplementing it with references, making outlines and maps, digesting, gathering notes, planning questions, etc. The teacher learns the qualities of her pupils, encouraging, guiding a little, directing, and stipulating. Talks may be given to individuals, small groups or the whole class as problems arise for one, a few or all of the pupils.

At first all do the C level work. As soon as a pupil believes he has finished this level he may prove it by taking a test or handing in some form of written work. If he establishes his claim, he then proceeds to a higher level. As the work of the year continues, the teacher becomes well enough acquainted with the pupils to allow the abler ones to begin a topic at a level higher than C.

The plans outlined by Miss Gold and Miss Johnson are similar in many respects and differ only in those details which must always be left to the initiative of teachers. One is struck by the fact that these excellent plans mean a large amount of work on the part of the teacher and a large amount of material equipment. The fact that both can be carried out in these schools shows that neither plan is impracticable,

and both teachers offered a number of suggestions through which the time of the teacher may be economized.

Miss Prudence Cutright, Director of Instructional Research in the Minneapolis Public Schools, presented *Some Problems of Social Studies in the Elementary Grades*. She laid especial emphasis on the fact that pupils cannot read texts in this field nearly so efficiently as many of us suppose. Experimental investigation has shown that the vocabulary used by those who write is unfamiliar to the pupils, words appearing there that appear in very little other reading, the authors often taking too little pains to make them clear. Another difficulty arises from the fact that pupils are too rarely taught to use the common aids to finding what is in a book, having little notion of the use of indices and tables of contents, much less of the use of books of reference.

She believes that the real problem centers in the need of teaching pupils how to study. The teacher needs to understand her pupils in the first place, to become clear about their difficulties with sufficient definiteness to be able to prescribe for them, and then to take the necessary pains to see that the difficulties are removed in so far as friendly explanation and stimulation will remove them.

She sees a little danger in the problem method of pupils getting only large vague notions and neglected definite information. Her experience lends additional emphasis to the need of developing for history and the other social studies a set of minimum essentials of facts and notions as a working basis for developing all aspects of teaching in this field.

#### BUSINESS MEETING

Two important matters of business were before the meeting—the amendment of the Constitution, as outlined by President Gambrill in the May issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, and the election of officers. For several years it has been apparent that some revision of the Constitution was desirable. Professor R. M. Tryon, as Chairman of the Committee on Plans and Policies, has repeatedly reported in favor of the general line of revision that was proposed in May. It remained for President Gambrill this year to codify these suggestions and bring them into orderly statement for adoption. The Council is under obligation to him for the painstaking attention he gave to this matter. All of the proposals he made had been submitted by him to a large number of the active members of the organization before they were proposed formally and were in principle approved by all of those to whom they were submitted.

The most important change was the reorganization of the Board of Directors, which had previously consisted of representatives appointed by national organizations whose interests were allied with those of the National Council for the Social Studies. The advantages to be derived from the advice of such representatives were conserved by providing in the new Constitution for an Advisory Board to be constituted in the discretion of the Board of Directors.

The new governing board will consist of the six elected officers of the Council; the managing editor of the journal, *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, and the Ex-Presidents, who may be assumed to be actively interested in the work of the organization.

Another somewhat less important change was to increase the annual dues from \$2.25 to \$3.00, including subscription to *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, in the discretion of the Board of Directors. After the Business Meeting adjourned the Directors voted that the new arrangement of dues should go into effect on January 1, 1929.

The Treasurer reported that the financial obligations of the Council have been met, that a comfortable balance is in the treasury, and that there remains on hand, as a financial asset, a considerable supply of the publications already issued. The increase of the dues was voted with a view to more extended publication—possibly in the form of a quarterly bulletin to be distributed to the members and sold to those who are not members.

Professor H. C. Hill, Chairman of the Nominating Committee, reported the following nominations, and the persons named were unanimously elected to hold office until the next regular meeting of the National Council:

President, A. C. Krey, of the University of Minnesota.

First Vice-President, Edgar Dawson, of Hunter College.

Second Vice-President, R. M. Tryon, University of Chicago.

Secretary-Treasurer, Bessie L. Pierce, University of Iowa.

Additional Members of the Board: Edna H. Stone, University High School, Oakland, California; Dewitt S. Morgan, Technical High School, Indianapolis, Indiana.

This meeting completed the first seven years in the life of the National Council for the Social Studies. Its success, due largely to the careful planning by the local committee, under the chairmanship of Professor Krey, marks the beginning of what is sure to be a period of far greater usefulness and prosperity.

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In the August *Review of Reviews*, Frank H. Simonds devotes some pages to a discussion of "What Europe Expects of Our Election," saying "Today Europe has cleared away most of the deadwood of war and post-war devastation. All the great countries are back upon a business basis with stabilized currencies. Domestic economic conditions are improving if not equally at least universally. But at the basis of the fiscal readjustment lies the need for American capital. Europe destroyed the greater part of its liquid capital in the great conflict....Therefore, it is hardly an exaggeration to say that most Europeans look forward hopefully to a Republican defeat. They do not know much about Governor Smith....Still, his party is the party of Wilson, and the late President remains for Europe the champion of American association with Europe. The Republican party....is the party which prevented America entering into the League....Europe hopes that with Democratic control it would be possible next year to open discussion of final liquidation of financial problems, both as they concern German reparations and European debts to the United States."



# Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

By COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

This month's material prepared by Howard C. Wilson, University of Chicago

A study of the trends of civic education in the United States in the upper division of the secondary school from 1800 to 1925 has been made at the University of Southern California by A. H. Morosco (M. A. thesis, School of Education, September, 1926). The purpose of the study was "to investigate civic instruction in Grades XII A and XII B of the senior high school from 1800 to 1925; to study the type of instruction, the aims, and the subject-matter of the period."

The procedure followed in the treatment of the problem was to select "secondary school textbooks in civics representing the decades from 1875 to 1925," together with the reports of the American Historical Association, the American Political Science Association, and the National Municipal League. The data was "organized under twenty-five heads as developed from a study by B. B. Bassett, of the University of Iowa, and reported in the *Seventeenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*." A further analysis was "made on the basis of selected topics taught in civics—national government, state government, local government, etc. The aim is to determine if possible whether any significant direction is revealed whereby future development may be circumscribed and directed."

Civic instruction from 1800 to 1892 is traced by quoting "school books of that day" and compiling ratios between the number of schools offering civics and United States history. The time allotment to civics in schools of the North Central States from the years 1860 to 1900 "ranged from one-third to five-ninths" of the time.

The thesis traces "the course of study" in the secondary school from 1892 to the present time and, finding that the attempt "to introduce the new courses has failed due to the teachers' inability or unwillingness to crowd into one course (Problems of Democracy) the foundation for several subjects," the conclusion is that "the course today is just about what it was in 1875. The present successful textbooks are up-to-date editions of Calvin Townsend's *American Government*, with increased attractiveness of 'make-up.' Separate courses in social problems and economics have narrowed the field of civics and have thrown the course back to a discussion of structure of government."

Two charts are presented, the first "showing space assignments given in textbooks to political problems over the period 1875-1925," according to Bassett's classification, and the second "showing space assignments to the functions of the several divisions of government assigned by the several authors studied." Trends developed by the second chart show three developments: First, "the shift from the presentation of the structure of government to the description of function"; second, "the increase in social and economic material from 1 per cent. in Townsend's book in 1875 to the high point in Williamson's of 31 per cent."; and third, "the amount of graphic material and suggestions to teachers introduced," the high level occurring when one-fourth of the book is so constructed. "The fact is that no book published prior to 1904 held such material and that no book written since 1904 is without such material."

The author closes his study with the so-called "ideal course of study," presenting an outline "taken from the Pennsylvania course of study as reported in the *Proceedings of the American Political Science Association*."

In Harriet Jane Link's *An Experimental Inquiry Into the Use of Suggesters in the Teaching of American History* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1927) a controlled experiment at the junior high school level is reported. The term "suggester" is best explained in the author's statement:

In the "suggester" method this development of associations is attempted through the use of words and phrases certainly memorized with a general idea or important location and in their sum total inclusively suggestive of all that idea or location should recall.

Suggesters are of two types: (1) those calling forth concrete ideas, and (2) those with wider associations and more extended ideas.

The author carried forward her investigation under controlled experimental conditions for three semesters with pupils in the seventh and eighth grades. Results are reported in detail, and more than one-half of the volume is given to presentation of test scores, lists of suggestions, tests, and other materials used. Results show that there is a difference between pupils in their rapidity of understanding of suggesters, that the effective use of suggesters is determined by frequency of review, that suggesters help inferior pupils to retain material covered, and that the use of suggesters helps all types of pupils to develop increased skill in the organization of subject-matter.

The term "suggesters" is likely to be somewhat confusing to the reader. It seems to denote a mnemonic system for the development of concepts.

A study of the teaching of citizenship to general continuation classes in part-time education has been made at the University of Southern California by Walter B. Crane (M. A. thesis, School of Education, May, 1927). The purpose "is not a research problem in the strict sense of the word, but rather a frank statement as to what has developed in part-time education during the few years that the law has been in existence."

Chapter IV deals with "special methods and devices" that are so general and so inadequate that they are almost useless.

In his conclusion the author states that "this discussion has been written not only for stating the problem of the part-time school and the reasons why, but also what should be taught in citizenship and how. Ideals may be stated in a general way and various individual means may be had of reaching these ideals, but unless instruction and plans are definite a wrong goal may be reached."

From the thesis he has written the author has adequately proved to the satisfaction of anyone reading his study that he has very successfully failed to do other than what is stated in his last sentence quoted above. If the situation in the part-time high schools of the United States is no better than the situation presented by the investigator, one can only wonder why students who leave the regular course are ever caught in the part-time school net.

*Bibliographies on Educational Sociology*, which is the *First Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Sociology*, is a 154-page collection of annotated titles of books, pamphlets, and articles in professional magazines. Items included range all the way from major social institutions through special institutions, educational objectives, the educational system, educational investigations, methods, guidance, and extra-curricular activities. Many sections of the volume are of direct interest and usefulness to teachers of the social studies; it should also find a place in all professional libraries. The price to non-members is \$1.50. Those interested in securing copies may do so by writing to Geo. B. Neumann, Secretary-Treasurer, State Teachers' College, Buffalo, New York.

"Teaching Current Events by the Project Method," by Emily R. Mode, is published in the May and June numbers

of the *Journal of Educational Method*. The writer conducted her experiment in a private school for girls in Los Angeles. The pupils, having had previous experience in a formal group organization, elected officers, made the approach through the study of "current history" rather than as "current events," and began their activity in a thorough-going manner. Two periods each week were given to the study, and all pupils enrolled in social studies courses were placed in the group. Sources of information, in addition to the usual reference materials, included the *Literary Digest*, the *Nation*, *Review of Reviews*, *Time*, and newspapers. The pupils in the group learned to discipline themselves, to select and organize materials, to evaluate sources of material, and to distinguish between facts and rumors. There are many concrete illustrations of the results obtained.

The May 5 issue of *Information Service* (Federal Council of Churches, Department of Research and Education, 105 East Twenty-second Street, New York City) is an eleven-page presentation of an investigation, entitled, "A Study of Patriotic Propaganda." An editorial statement includes the following sentence, "We have made this study in response to an urgent demand for an analysis of the propaganda, not to serve any organizational end, but in the line of our function as a vehicle of factual information." There is a review of the activities of certain individuals, organizations, and publications in the dissemination of propaganda, followed by a statement and evaluation of attacks on certain individuals and organizations which include excerpts from documents and publications used by propagandists. Teachers and other interested persons who wish to keep informed will find the summary of materials illuminating. The price per copy is fifteen cents.

The *Editorial Research Reports*, 839 Seventeenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., specialize in the organization and distribution of data on current topics and problems for the use of editors of newspapers and other interested persons. Near the close of the last school year a "Student Service" was established. Data from the more comprehensive reports are modified, amplified, and edited by Ernest D. Lewis, Evander Childs' High School, New York City. The "Student Service" is issued monthly during the school year. The first number contains twelve pages of material on "Mississippi River Flood Relief and Flood Control," including a full-page map and references for further reading. It represents the most complete material published to date for high school use, and it is well written. The charge for group orders for high school use is fifty cents a semester or one dollar a year for ten issues. The reports, as now issued to subscribers for the service, are found in many libraries. They supply essential material, in well-written form, on current topics and problems. Considerable research work is involved in the compilation of materials. Libraries in colleges and teacher-training institutions will find the service indispensable for use in courses in the social sciences. Rates may be secured upon request.

In the May number of the *High School* (Oregon), C. E. Rothwell contributes a discussion of "The Unit Assignment in the Social Studies." The objectives of the social studies courses in the University of Oregon High School are listed; the main features of a unit are described, and one complete unit is given. The technique of instruction, which follows that of Henry C. Morrison, is discussed at some length. A bibliography is included.

A study by Joseph A. Baer, entitled, "For What Is the Teacher Paid?" is published as the May 30 issue of the *Educational Research Bulletin* (College of Education, Ohio State University). The third part of the investigation deals with subjects taught by teachers. Observations made by the investigator, based on the data, include: (1) men hold a larger proportion of senior high school history and civics positions than do women, with women beginning to

displace the men; (2) men teachers of history and civics in the county high schools have the least training of men teachers of all subjects.

Matthew L. Dann, in the April 2 issue of the *Journal of Education*, presents a list of important contributions of ancient civilizations to modern life, and insists that the teacher of modern world history must make a careful selection of the materials to be used for purposes of instruction, regardless of the textbook and prescribed course of study. The subject-matter must be organized in some form of units about a series of central themes, which are appropriately named. Suggestions are given concerning: (1) teacher's daily preparation, (2) assignment and home work, (3) classroom discussions, (4) supplementary reading, (5) current events, (6) illustrative material, and (7) world outlook.

The Educational Department of the League of Nations Non-Partisan Association (6 East Thirty-ninth Street, New York City) has recently published *A Study Course on the League of Nations, the World Court, and the International Labor Organization*. The thirty-four-page pamphlet contains twelve outlines of different phases of the activities of the three organizations. Each outline presents a brief introduction, a list of questions and topics for discussion, and a list of references. There are lists of "Reference Material" and "Minimum Reference Material." The price is ten cents.

An interesting workbook for the problem-solving approach to history in the elementary grades has been prepared by C. C. Scheck and M. Althea Orton, of Rochester, New York (*Directed History Study*, Book I: "Backgrounds of American History," World Book Company, 1928). The manual deals "with the progress of civilization from the Old Stone Age in Europe to the period of exploration in America." It contains ten major problems, or units, subdivided into thirty minor problems. A typical problem is "How Early Man Was Able to Survive His Many Dangers." With each problem is presented a written overview or assignment, a list of reading references, study questions, summary suggestions, and an exercise in word study. Occasional map exercises are included. Tests, usually of the completion type, accompany each problem.

Teachers of the social studies in elementary schools will find in Rose B. Knox's *School Activities and Equipment: A Guide to Materials and Equipment* (Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1927) a list of types of maps, charts, and bulletin boards with specifications concerning uses, sizes, and adaptability for pupils at the elementary school level. The suggestions and details of equipment for constructive activities are truly a "mine of information" for teachers who have the ambition, but lack the technique and knowledge of details, to formulate a program of activities in the social studies. The section on libraries, museums, pictures, and school exhibits includes valuable materials, suggestions for equipment, and the details of housing equipment. This volume, in short, should find a place in the professional libraries of elementary school teachers of the social studies.

In the March issue of the *Bulletin of High Points* (New York City), Gertrude A. Price, Chairman of the Department of Social Studies in the Franklin K. Lane High School, contributes "Current Events as Pupils View the Subject." There are many excerpts from the opinions of pupils. More than 55 per cent. liked current events because of the knowledge of world happenings; 15 per cent. claimed that the subject contributed toward a better understanding of government; 9 per cent. claimed that it contributed to the understanding of history; 6 per cent. claimed that the study of current events helped them to converse intelligently with other people, while 4 per cent. claimed the subject was not useful due to the fact that events change rapidly. Most pupils failed to differentiate between "liking" a subject and its "usefulness."

In the same magazine, Paul F. Frabito gives an outline of a course in "New York City Industries," in which is found a valuable list of references for each unit.

Edwin J. Dahl, in the May issue of the *High School Teacher*, presents a survey of the social studies in the senior high school, entitled, "Chaos in the Senior High Social Studies." Data collected by the writer and materials assembled by other investigators are given in five tables. Convincing evidence of the wide variation in types of courses offered is presented. Although certain questions are raised, no answers are given. The writer seems to favor standardization and consolidation of courses. In the Social Studies Department of the same issue of the magazine is a brief article on the methodology of an investigation, entitled, "Content Materials of Senior High School Social Science Textbooks." An outline for the classification of topics and certain suggestions for tabulation of data are given.

The July issue of *Foreign Affairs* contains a critical estimate of the Sixth Pan-American Conference by Walter Lippmann, entitled, "Second Thoughts on Havana." There are two articles on our foreign policy, one by Ogden L. Mills, which is written from the Republican point of view, and the other by Franklin D. Roosevelt, which presents the Democratic point of view on the foreign policy of the Republican administrations. There are also articles on our relations with Haiti, Mexico, and the Philippine Islands. *Foreign Affairs* is an indispensable publication of teachers of modern world history. The subscription is \$5.00 a year. Address, 25 West Forty-third Street, New York City.

In the April issue of the *University High School Journal* (Oakland, California), Ruby B. Larson contributes "Phases of the Problem of Interrelation of English and Social Studies." The work in the seventh grade in which one teacher handles both English and social studies is described.

The article includes a list of activities common to both subjects, a list of essential items for guidance in making reports, a list of reading objectives, a list of useful books arranged by periods, numerous examples of original poems, stories, and characterizations of historical personages written by pupils.

Philip Nanes, Chairman of the Social Studies Department in the Bushwick High School, Brooklyn, New York, in the June issue of the *Bulletin of High Points* contributes a paper entitled, "Objectives in the Social Sciences." Objectives which receive attention include: training for citizenship, an understanding of institutions, habits of thought and actions, development of the habit of suspended judgment, evaluation of new ideas in the light of the old, contribution to ideas of development and progress, training in social judgment, training of the logical memory through tracing relationships, help in understanding and training in other subjects, development of concepts necessary to interpret modern life, and the development of a desire to know the truth. The second part of the paper describes attempts made to realize the objectives.

Fremont P. Wirth, in the May issue of the *Co-operative School Bulletin* (Auburn, Indiana), discusses "Collateral Reading and the Teaching of History." The writer mentions the fact that collateral reading as an integral phase of instruction in history has not received the attention which it deserves, due largely to the fact that teachers neglect this phase of their work. Not enough funds are available properly to equip libraries, nor is the available money always spent wisely. Two types of reading are essential in history: reading for interest and atmosphere and reading for facts, and each should be developed through a special technique. "Most students are interested in biography and history, though very often they have their interest in the subject crushed by their classroom experience, which in some cases unfortunately is remembered too long."

W. Walker Brown, research assistant in the Los Angeles Public Schools, contributes a brief article, "Curriculum Building in Junior High School Social Studies," in the June issue of the *High School Teacher*. Certain problems are cited, types of courses of study described, and a detailed statement of significant elements for further curriculum revision is given.

The preliminary edition of the program for the Sixth Commonwealth Conference of the State University of Iowa, held July 9-10, dealt with "Political Issues of 1928." It is published as *University of Iowa Extension Bulletin* No. 196. Each issue is stated in a definite form, followed by opinions of prominent persons. The ninety-six-page presentation of political issues is a handy volume for persons who wish to keep informed on political affairs.

The New England History Teachers' Association held its annual spring meeting at Hartford, Connecticut, April 20-21. The Hartford Branch of the Foreign Policy Association and members of the History Association attended a joint dinner at which Dr. Julius Klein, Director of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce, spoke on "The Economic Recovery of Europe and Its Meaning to American Business." Papers were read at the Saturday morning session as follows: Professor Clifford C. Hubbard, Wheaton College, "Political Aspects of the Hartford Conventions"; Professor Theodore C. Smith, Williams College, "History and the New Biography." The program was followed by a pageant entitled, "A Session of the Hartford Convention," written by William E. Buckley, Hartford Public High School. At a luncheon at the Town and Country Club, Professor Ralph H. Gabriel, Yale University, read a paper entitled, "Military Folkways of Modern America."

Officers of the association are: President, Frank M. Anderson, Dartmouth College; Vice-President, Lawrence Roth, Phillips Andover Academy; Secretary-Treasurer, Horace Kidger, Newton (Massachusetts) High School.

*Brought Down to September, 1928*

## IMPORTANT EVENTS OF THE PAST SIX YEARS IN EUROPEAN AND AMERICAN HISTORY

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# Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

*Our Times, The United States, 1900-1925, vol. II, America Finding Herself.* By Mark Sullivan. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1927. 668 pp.

Only those Americans who possess a lively recollection of education as it was in the United States between 1865 and 1900 can properly enjoy this volume. To such it will be found "amusing, entertaining, instructive, and morally invigorating," to employ the vernacular of literary recommendation common in that period. Those of us who used to "peruse" the McGuffey readers, who learned to spell from Webster's "blue-back" speller, who spoke "pieces" from the Delsarte Speaker of a Friday afternoon, who sang our "goggerfy," or who did a dozen other things which the reading of the first two hundred pages of Mr. Sullivan's book calls so vividly to mind, find ourselves under a debt of gratitude to the author for his kindness in assisting us to live again those days of "dear delight." Or at least they seem delightful days now, that they are gone forever. Perhaps if we were entirely fair, we should be obliged to admit that there were a number of chores and irksome tasks to perform (not to mention some severe whippings to receive) that did not seem so pleasant at the time. But in retrospect even these take on a halo. At any rate, many of us believe that we should be grateful for the harder side of our early lives also, for is it not as much due to that harder side as to the more pleasant that we are the great, upstanding men and women we are today? Of course it is, and in sadness do we reflect that because our children cannot have the advantage of the environment that was ours, they will never be the men and women we are! And if some of the more irreverent ones should read this, methinks I can hear them exclaim, "True, thank God!"

But why should an historian who professedly is writing an account of the United States from 1900 to 1925 concern himself with an educational idealism that had largely passed away by the turn of the century? Here is his answer:

"The aim of Part I of this volume is to survey the average American's stock of ideas, so far as those ideas came to him through his early education....The period when the average American of 1900-25 received his education, the time when his mind was stored with the ideas that largely determined his political and other convictions and biases is obvious. Consider that the average adult American of 1900-1925 was of the same age, roughly, as some Presidents for whom he voted....The average American who voted for them [i. e., Roosevelt, Wilson, and Coolidge] obviously had received his schooling during approximately the same period or a little later, in many cases as late as 1910. In the American public school, therefore, of the 1860s, 70s, 80s, 90s, and early 1900s, we shall discover the sources of whatever it was that education did to form the minds of the American generation who were adult between 1900 and 1925. For the great majority, the vast majority of the average, formal education ended with what they got from the common schools."

What then did the great majority get from the common schools? Besides the incidentals mentioned in the opening paragraph of this review, they were indoctrinated with the great fundamental principles of morality. (Religion still overlapped education.) But they did not acquire much critical acumen. They did not know how, nor care, to apply their moral principles to the concrete problems which were arising out of the revolutionary social and economic changes that had taken place during their childhood and youth. These complex problems transcended the old moral sanctions, but the McGuffey-trained citizens were not aware of it. Nearly all the selections from these time-honored texts had pointed to the twinship of righteousness and success in business. Goodness was so frequently rewarded with riches that one might fairly draw the conclusion that the rich were the good and the poor the wicked.

Since the poor had votes and were in a majority, it was obvious that no politician could give public utterance to any such dogma. But if the poor had the majority of the votes, the rich had the greater amount of power and it was unsafe for any politician to offend them *en masse*. Consequently, the safe course for the politician was to denounce evil and praise good in general terms. In the main, this was the forte of Mr. Roosevelt. Unrighteousness never had a more uncompromising foe, nor righteousness a braver champion, than this undaunted warrior. And it should be said for him that he came down to specific cases much more frequently than any other leader the Republican party ever had, either before or since, has felt it safe to do. For this Mr. Sullivan is quite adulatory of the great "progressive," rather more so, I think, than the record really warrants. However, this is a matter of opinion, and even if mine is the more nearly correct estimate of Mr. Roosevelt, this fact in no way detracts from the general excellence of the book.

The social and economic data selected is well chosen and interestingly presented. Mr. Sullivan's methodology is unique. In obtaining the facts relating to a particular event, not only does he employ many reliable written documents, but he submits his manuscript to a number of persons who participated in the event, and receives from them valuable information, suggestions, and criticism, which he uses with proper discretion and reservation. In making correlations and interpretations, Mr. Sullivan leaves something, but not very much, to be desired.

B. B. KENDRICK.

North Carolina College for Women.

*The Making of Our United States.* By R. O. Hughes. Allyn and Bacon, Boston, 1927. xli, 607 pp. Junior High School.

*American History for Young Americans.* By Edith Latané and John Holladay Latané. Allyn and Bacon, Boston, 1927. 573 pp. Junior High School.

*Economic and Social History of the United States.* By Isaac Lippincott and H. R. Tucker. D. Appleton and Company, New York and London, 1927. 635 pp. Senior High School.

*The American People and Nation.* By Rolla M. Tryon and Charles R. Lingley. Ginn and Company, New York and Boston, 1927. xxiv, 654 pp. Junior High School.

*Beginner's History of the United States.* By James A. Woodburn and Thomas F. Moran. Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1927. 498 pp. Fourth to Sixth Grades.

There are two criteria by which the experienced teacher judges textbooks: The accuracy and promptness with which they keep within shouting distance of the racing scholarship of the experts, and the practicability of the methods suggested and almost imposed by the make-up of the text. American teachers are forced by the number of students consigned to their care in an age of surging population and educational democracy to make the textbook do much that under easier conditions they themselves would do. The crowding of the schools may not have produced the vastly improved texts of recent years, but under that condition it is providential indeed that texts nowadays may to some extent take a teacher's place. Teachers have not the time, when they do have the ability, to correct out-of-date and misleading textbooks; nor have they the time to devise as many exercises and illustrations as their pupils should have. The best of the newer texts correct old misapprehensions in the content of history, and suggest a world of simple research and application suitable to the interests and abilities of children, which partially supply the guiding hand of the teachers of more leisured days.

Here is a group of texts in the new manner, written by people closely in touch with university centers and also

evidently closely in touch with classroom teaching. They are notable chiefly for the variety and kind of their teaching helps, and for their broad interpretation of what American history is. The young student is prepared for his later work by having from the beginning a mixture of political, military, economic, social, and intellectual history. The chapters in all cases are topical rather than chronological, and in Hughes and in Tryon and Lingley the unit or "block" method is especially well worked out. These latter texts give forewords or questions at the beginning of each unit, calculated to motivate the pupil's reading; and at the end questions and exercises which enable him to test his own mastery of the subject-matter. This is in line with new tendencies in education to make the pupil stand on his own feet, and it also conforms to the settled principle of experienced and successful teachers of history that facts must be learned. It is only when pupils come to the classroom after having tested themselves to make sure that they have really mastered the facts concerned, that a discussion or problem method can be successfully used in the class hour. Hughes gives especially full self-test questions of all the approved modern sorts; the Latané thinks that such tests should in all cases be made by the teacher, but give models for that purpose, with brief but searching questions at the ends of the chapters. The self-test questions in Tryon and Lingley are simple and varied, and include directions for notebook-making. The test questions in Woodburn and Moran are accompanied by full pronouncing lists. Tryon and Lingley give a few markings for foreign names in the index. Otherwise, these authors compliment the teachers with having the ability to pronounce all words correctly and to teach that pronunciation to their pupils. Perhaps some busy teachers would rather have the help than the compliment.

There is a tradition that college students once upon a time were not required to read more than the textbook upon which their lessons were based. Today even junior high school boys and girls are expected to read as widely as possible those books which will deepen, widen, and enrich the basic knowledge supplied by the text. Woodburn and Moran, writing an elementary textbook largely biographical in content, give a brief list of school library books at the end of the volume, where pupils are likely to overlook it. In the other texts the reference lists are given in or accompanying each chapter, where their suggestive value is high. The Latané and Hughes texts give well-selected literary readings and essay subjects, which enable a wide-awake teacher easily to correlate the work in history and English. Tryon and Lingley give debate topics, floor-talk subjects, map suggestions, and round-table ideas. Such texts make it possible for the teacher who wants to experiment with an able class to do so and live to tell the tale.

Maps and illustrations are particularly fresh and helpful in the Tryon and Lingley and in the Latané texts. All of them give the Constitution in the appendices; Hughes and also Tryon and Lingley with very helpful notes. Woodburn and Moran print a simplified form suitable for the younger children for whom their book is written. Mr. Hughes in his text includes much sociological and economic interpretation not usually to be found in school histories; those teachers who like to work by a problem method will find this text helpful, while those who set a high value on a strictly subjective presentation, modeled on the treatment of history for older students, will find such a presentation in Tryon and Lingley and in Latané and Latané. The latter text is obviously written for Southern consumption, but is so fair in its treatment of the Civil War and Reconstruction that it could be used in Northern schools. Perhaps it is the book which is to usher in that happy period when the same school texts can be used in North and South.

One thing is noticeable: each of the four general texts closes with some sort of appeal to the pupils, stimulating and guiding toward better citizenship. Evidently few if any text-writers in these days consider that history justified which gives information only. The patriotic ends of

history study are as generally acknowledged as ever, although the conception of patriotism and the means of gaining those ends have improved in honesty and, one hopes, in effectiveness. The parting words in the texts by Mr. Hughes and by Messrs. Tryon and Lingley are especially good.

The supplementary text by Lippincott and Tucker deserves a special word. Here is gathered together in a systematic and well-composed way a large amount of social and economic material with sufficient tie-up to the political history of each succeeding period to show the effect of the lives of the people upon their civic policies. It covers the whole period of transplanted European life in America. It is well written, with clear sequences and arrangement, and with the usual teaching helps. A few misleading inaccuracies appear, such as the diagram of party development on page 185. This is evidently made on the one issue of Constitutional interpretation and ignores the Socialist and Prohibition parties, two groups of immense importance to any survey of the social and economic life of the country. On page 361 is the statement, reinforced by one on page 472, that "few housekeepers at present have ever made bread," that since the introduction of factory production household industries have disappeared. Some thousands of thrifty women, if they saw that statement, might pause as they stood at their ovens or canning-boilers or as they sat at their sewing machines to make an indignant denial. Such slips are few, however, and teachers will find this book very helpful in widening the understanding of students concerning the interplay of forces in American life.

FRANCES MOREHOUSE.

Hunter College.

*Adventures in American Diplomacy.* By Alfred L. P. Dennis. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., 1928. xii, 537 pp.

"The United States was unexpectedly called to take a larger part in international affairs than she had hitherto filled and before the decade, 1896-1906, was ended we found ourselves one of the few great powers of the world." In this brief sentence from his prefatory remarks, Dr. Dennis has traced the outline which his carefully documented pages ably supplement.

The great game of diplomacy, as it is played by the representatives of all nations—perhaps we should say as it *was* played before 1914—is uncannily reminiscent of a good rubber of bridge. There is the same careful calculation of various forces, the same subtle finesse, the same play at the right instant of the trump card, the same effort on the part of each player to estimate the contents of what the others have in their hands. It is hard to realize at times that in the smooth and suave sentences of diplomatic documents, at least the most of them, lie the weal and woe of great nations.

It is with some such thought as this that the reader of Dr. Dennis' splendid book should settle himself down to a careful perusal of its pages. The intricacies of the story will lead him from the jungles of the Essequibo in Venezuela to the rushing waters of the Stikine in Canada; from the dark areas of the Philippines to the fetid swamps of Panama; from the bloody pogroms in South Russia; from the tangled skeins of Old World intrigue at Algeciras to the quiet New Hampshire town where Theodore Roosevelt aided mightily in bringing peace back in 1905. And everywhere he will find a panorama of human passion and selfishness all interwoven with human idealism and sacrifice for lofty hopes. What a strange world it is, and how little do most Americans understand the incredible complexities which face the executive head of a nation as great as our own!

In specific, we are informed that during this momentous decade from 1896-1906 the United States sought to develop a policy which would take care of four basic points: the Monroe Doctrine; the Isthmian canal; contacts with Europe; the open door in the Far East. Around these four points of the international compass swung our foreign

relations. The emphasis varied at times, depending partly upon external conditions over which the United States had no control, and partly on the personality and interests of the chief executive and the secretary of state.

As might be expected, many popular judgments go by the board. We are left with a queer unsatisfied feeling as we ponder the "righteousness" of the War of 1898. It becomes absolutely clear that the "secret alliance" between England and our country during the trying years from 1898 on was buncombe. The application of the "open door" policy in China can no longer be ascribed with absolute certainty to Secretary Hay; it develops that the first step in the declaration of such a policy actually came from Britain. The "big-stick" policy in the Caribbean is less a malevolent invention of Uncle Sam, and more a normal working out of international life than many Latin-Americans are disposed to admit. It is evident that Roosevelt was playing almost a Bismarckian game in Panama in 1903; anxious as he was that the United States should develop the canal project, he was even more anxious that in the event of trouble Colombia should be in such a position that she must make the overt act which would give the United States an excuse for intervention.

Possibly the most interesting chapters are those which detail the interplay of forces in international politics during the years 1904-06. The Treaty of Portsmouth, the Treaty of Bjorko, the Anglo-French Entente, the Conference at Algeiras, the Second Hague Convention—how many balls there were to juggle while dancing on the tight-rope! And all the time Roosevelt carried on the normal course of American affairs at home, was re-elected in 1904, and took occasional hunting trips.

Two things stand out in clear outline from the pages of this remarkably informing and accurate book. First, talk of American "isolation" is 100 per cent. folly. For better or for worse, we are utterly a part of world affairs. As Roosevelt said, "...this country will play a great part in the world. All we can decide is whether we will play

it well or ill." Second, the relations between the President and the Senate in regard to the negotiation of treaties are in most cases dismally inefficient. It is, of course, too much to hope that they will be generally bettered in the near future, but it would be a worthy thing for which to hope.

This is, indeed, a book for the scholar in his study. But it is more than that. It is deserving of a place on the journalist's desk, in the lawyer's files, on the minister's pulpit. It should surely be read by those citizens—would that there were more of them—who love their country, but who believe that patriotism should be informed, intelligent, and rightly critical.

DUANE SQUIRES.

State Teachers' College, Mayville, North Dakota.

*A Side-Light on Anglo-American Relations, 1838-1859.*  
By Annie Heloise Abel, Ph.D., and Frank J. Klingberg, Ph.D. The Association for the Study of Negro Life and History, Inc., Washington, D. C., 1927. vii, 407 pp.

What really constitutes a new chapter in the history of a constantly growing understanding between the two great parts of the English-speaking world during the past century is this book just brought out by Professors Abel and Klingberg, which throws the searchlight upon nineteenth-century humanitarianism.

Professor Klingberg's interest in the general subject has been revealed in his recent volume on *The Anti-Slavery Movement in England*, published by the Yale University Press. That the authors have been indefatigable in their researches among the records, particularly in London, where they found a wealth of material, is at once apparent upon inspection of the mass of documentary matter included in the work. Save for an enlightening *Introduction* to the whole general subject of British humanitarianism in the first fifty pages, the volume is a joint editing of a collection of correspondence of Lewis Tappan, corresponding

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secretary of the American and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society, and others with the British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society, just unearthed from the Society archives in England.

While the *Introduction* and the elaborate footnotes are an excellent piece of interpretation, the documents themselves that have been selected and rescued will prove an indispensable source book for the period in both English and American history and on both sides of the Atlantic a boon to teachers and students who have been confused by the multiplicity of issues and interests that complicated Anglo-American relations in the twenty years before our Civil War. A fitting *Conclusion* occupies pages 368-371.

The general histories of our country have been all too indefinite in discussing the achievements of the anti-slavery organizations, because of the nebulous state of the information available about them. Now the atmosphere has been largely cleared up. Not only do we have here an evaluation of the work of the original American Anti-Slavery Society—Garrison's—but a careful delineation of the far-reaching ramifications of its great rival, the American and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society, the body to which the Tappan brothers and their friends transferred their allegiance.

The reviewer has just turned the pages of six of the newer and standard college histories of the United States, only to find, as anticipated, that not one of them so much as referred to the American and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society. The student is left unaware that there were not one, but two, anti-slavery organizations, both with the same objective, abolition, but widely differing as to methods and in their attitude toward the Constitution. The story has therefore been incomplete.

The gap that has been filled in by the authors and editors is significant because of the light that it throws on the subject of Anglo-American co-operation. The British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society was formed in England in 1839 (page 3). Since such humanitarian bodies there could always be counted upon to have their overseas counterparts, we are not surprised to find that the formation of the American and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society followed apace. The American organization was closely patterned after the parent body and affiliated with it. They pooled their resources. They presented a united front. They harmonized their publicity; each had its own official mouthpiece, a *Reporter*.

The result of all this common humanitarian sentiment was "that the two sections of the English-speaking world, within the realm of all that indicated high endeavor, thoroughly understood each other. They spoke the same terms and had the same lofty ethical conception of their individual or joint responsibility for the world's concerns" (page 11). There was nevertheless a difference between them. British philanthropists were characterized by a greater breadth of outlook, due in measure to Britain's ever-widening and varied commercial and political contacts. But "Trans-Atlantic conditions made for self-absorption on the part of the Americans." We are reminded that:

"If, in the past, much misunderstanding has existed respecting British intentions regarding things affecting the United States in the middle of the last century, there need be none henceforth....The idea has obtained that Britain had aggressive designs upon Texas and, possibly, upon other Mexican territory; but the Tappan letters show that for some reason, not easily ascertained, she resisted pressure brought to bear upon her to be aggressive. And, considering how great that pressure was, great because communicated from one group of philanthropists, American, to another, British, the marvel is that the Foreign Office remained so quiescent...." However, "there were reasons, strong commercial ones, why Great Britain and the United States should maintain the peace," page 16).

The documents presented throw light upon the major issues of the day; for example, the annexation of Texas, extradition, particularly in the Webster-Ashburton Treaty, abolitionism, the national elections, and the Compromise of 1850. Five questions especially are thrown into high relief from "the bewildering maze of communications that passed back and forth across the Atlantic during the eventful

years 1839-1858." These were the question of Texas, the position of the black man, fugitive slave or free, in the United States, in Canada, and in Liberia; the coastwise slave trade; the attitude of the churches, their leaders and their missionary boards, towards slavery; and, finally, a subject that stood out prominently above the rest, "the question, how best could Britain help the United States in her anti-slavery struggle" (page 15). The documentary answer to this question is a contribution to the study of Anglo-American co-operation.

There are, indeed, many "side-lights" in the book. The authors and editors have performed a praiseworthy service in rescuing valiant figures in the British, as well as the American, anti-slavery movement, from "the obscurity in which they have been left because of the brilliance surrounding others, more fortunate in the possession of biographers." Readers are accordingly reminded that "John Greenleaf Whittier, the poet, is widely known, but Whittier, the editor of the Pennsylvania *Freeman*, the anti-slavery propagandist, the writer of splendid political essays like that on Daniel O'Connell, is not. Any memory of Judge William Jay is lost in the greater memory of his distinguished father. In addition, William Goodell, the jurist; S. S. Jocelyn, Joshua Leavitt, and Amos A. Phelps were conspicuous in the anti-slavery crusade, as were Garrison and Birney and the Tappans."

The book is reinforced with an unusually good index.

LOUIS K. KOONTZ.

University of California at Los Angeles.

*Nicaragua and the United States, 1909-1927.* By Isaac Joslin Cox. Boston, World Peace Foundation, 1927. 697-887 pp.

Nicaragua, land of many revolutions and interventions by the United States, forms the background of events narrated by Professor Cox in his study of political and financial conditions there from 1909-1927.

The geographical importance of Nicaragua as the strategic point for an additional canal route through Central America has been a primary concern of the Department of State for many years. The opening of the Panama Canal and its subsequent protection brought about the project for securing canal rights to another interoceanic route by the United States. The treaty between the United States and Nicaragua of 1916 has been the keynote of American policy in Nicaragua ever since. An interesting analysis is given of the financial vicissitudes of the National Bank and Railway and the claims of the Ethelburga Syndicate on loans made.

The history of the country has been largely a series of dictatorships interspersed with an occupation by United States Marines from 1912-1923. Peace reigned during an intervention which gained for American policy the title of "dollar diplomacy." December, 1926, saw the Marines back in Managua protecting lives and property in the conflict for the Presidency between the Conservatives under Diaz and the Liberals under Sacasa.

Civil strife and the domination of Washington for pacification, together with attempts by Nicaragua at unionism with other Central American republics, are described by the author with great clarity, and many points of view by publicists, Latin-American editors and writers are presented. Documents on the diplomatic history of American relations with Nicaragua, the canal treaty, the loan convention, the financial readjustments, and the activities of Sacasa and Diaz are covered by a very extensive appendix.

Tables of recent Marine Corps' encounters and a map of the Republic of Nicaragua render this volume invaluable as source material.

*Sir Walter Raleigh.* By Milton Waldman. Harper, New York, 1928. viii, 253 pp.

*Henry Hudson.* By Llewellyn Powys. Harper, New York, 1928. viii, 233 pp.

*Sir John Hawkins.* By James A. Williamson. Oxford University Press, New York, 1927. xii, 542 pp.

While the three books above are evidence of the continuing interest in early English explorers and adventurers,

they also bear witness to the apparent desirability of re-examination of the two fateful centuries in English history when the English carried their state, their economy, and their souls through characteristically native and insular renaissance and reformation. All three of these biographies, the first and the last in particular, find it necessary to discuss earlier evaluations of their heroes and their times, and if it is true that every generation must write its own history, we have here interpretations congenial to our own total view of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries and to our own general outlook. It is as if the history of history and of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries had to be taken into account when writing about plentifully-discussed figures of the sixteenth and seventeenth. In this sense all three books can be called original and, in addition, each of them brings to the task of interpretation evidence which has been unavailable to earlier authors. Each is useful and sound historically, for new suggestions are naturally argued pro and con in the light of the old.

Mr. Waldman has attempted the most difficult biographical task, that of making credible and understandable the contradictory career of a poet who found chief expression in spectacular action. On the whole, he is successful, and chiefly because he does not try to make his hero consistent. The fascinating career of the gifted adventurer who survived his own generous, if irregular, era only to fall a victim to the meanness of the next, is carefully and interestingly portrayed, and the author manages quite well to show how the nobility of the poet came to the surface at great crises to make men forget the venial behaviour of the courtier and remember one of the best-hated Elizabethans as a true Paladin destroyed by lesser men. Mr. Powys provides the best literary tribute. He has less evidence to sift, more absolutely blind alleys and a more unified career to study. As a result, his book is a delightful essay, lightened by very happy literary and other allusions, on a singularly adventurous man who won his successes though he lacked powers of leadership and who died a victim to that lack and to his own irresolute behaviour. Mr. Williamson's biography has as its sub-title, *The Time and the Man*, and is quite the most scholarly effort of the three. Indeed, it becomes necessary to review a good deal of history in the light of its new evidence and new theses. It also points the way to a good deal of useful research. It is in no sense a rehash or swift, generalized interpretation, but a painstaking investigation of the career of a reticent, politic man who was engaged through his lifetime in affairs which involved nations and great opposing religious forces. It is based on wide acquaintance with the enormous volume of source materials which exists for sixteenth-century English history, and this acquaintance is buttressed by a critical inquisitiveness which the cautionary notes concerning Hakluyt's editions and even single state papers reveal. Mr. Williamson's most suggestive contributions are those which concern the early African trade, and his thesis that Hawkins hoped to build up English mercantile ascendancy in the Americas by serving Philip II as naval guardian against French corsairs. The gradual break-down of this design in view of the French civil wars and the Anglo-Spanish conflict introduces Hawkins to the latter struggle much more convincingly than has been done before. Any student of this period will welcome this new biography for its new materials, its fresh interpretations, and its suggestions for further profitable investigation.

BARTLET BRENNER.

Columbia University.

*A History of the English People, 1830-1841.* Elie Halévy. Harcourt, Brace and Co., New York. 372 pp. \$6.00.

In 1842 James Stephen of the Colonial Office wrote Mc-Vey Napier, editor of the *Edinburgh Review*, that "these last ten years form a very remarkable and instructive chapter in English history. Let us hope that some wise man will have the writing of it." A year later he wrote again: "The history of England since the Reform Bill is a subject which Lord John Russell—whom Stephen thought by nature designed for political power—ought to undertake." If

Stephen were alive today we may be sure that his satisfaction at seeing his first hope fulfilled would smother any lingering regret that the second had never achieved fruition. Lord John might have failed; M. Halévy has not.

The 85 years which have elapsed since Stephen passed his judgment have not dimmed the importance of that decade, and though we see it as part of one stupendous whole we also can remark its significance. The period covered by this concluding volume of M. Halévy's *History of the English People in the Nineteenth Century* saw a plenitude and a variety of epochal legislation scarcely equalled in any decade since. The Great Reform Act, the Emancipation Act, Factory Acts, the Poor Law, and the Municipal Government reform are as significant for what they promise and initiate as for what they actually achieve. Important *per se* this legislation also marked the rise of modern party practices and the system of legislative bribes. In addition came such interesting and critical developments as the Oxford Movement, Chartism, Free Trade agitation, centralized governmental administration, and the beginnings of Palmerston's *Civis Romanus sum* foreign policy.

While presenting us with a masterly summary of these historical raw materials, M. Halévy has not produced merely a compilation of brilliant generalizations which can mean something only when superimposed upon a complete and accurate knowledge of facts. He has managed to tell the story of the Reform Act in an almost definitive fashion. In so doing the history of the ten franchise has rightly been given an attention equal to that of the rotten boroughs. The anti-clerical sentiment of the reform agitation is presented adequately for the first time in a general summary. As was to be expected, the legislative activity of the reformed parliament is ably portrayed, though the emancipation act receives somewhat perfunctory treatment. More generosity could fairly have been displayed toward James Stephen, who was the real author of the bill, rather than Lord Stanley, to whom M. Halévy gives the credit.

On the other hand, students of intellectual history cannot be too grateful for the clear-cut elucidation of the Benthamite influence on English politics. (It may be said that M. Halévy looks at politics through Aristotelian spectacles.) Disciples of Bentham were prominent on commissions investigating specific reforms. But more than this the philosophy of Bentham had largely impregnated the political thinking of the thirties. The emphasis on administrative reform and centralization, a tendency which has aroused the ire of British leaders from Melbourne to the present Lord Chief Justice, was the brainchild of Bentham. Never was more plainly exhibited the influence of conscious political thinking.

With all his learning, whether expressed in tracing the reforms, looking with a kindly eye on Benthamism, Chartism, and the Oxford Movement alike, or skillfully analysing successive budgets, M. Halévy has contrived to be lucid and interesting if not dramatic. And no partisan of Melbourne, Peel, or the radicals can quarrel with the portrayal of his favorite. From these points of view we can only hope prayerfully that our author will go to provide us with a similar balanced ration for the decade which saw the fall of Peel, the success of free trade, and the fiasco of Chartism.

CHARLES F. MULLETT.

University of Missouri.

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*The Life of Saint Francis of Assisi.* By Luigi Salvatorelli, translated by Eric Sutton. Knopf, New York, 1924. 313 pp.

This is a distinguished book. While it is in intention and accomplishment a literary achievement, a beautifully unified and satisfyingly explanatory biography, yet, because its author has steeped himself in the history contemporary to his subject, it is also a convincing historical picture of the saint and his times. It is not often that genuine historical erudition and literary skill are appropriately combined, but in this occasion the subject is brought again to life through a medium which is winning even in translation and promises rewards of charm and prose poetry to those who can read the original Italian.

Sabatier's book about St. Francis has unquestionably discouraged others from writing about him, but now it has a worthy rival and one which is of perhaps greater use to historians. It is just as fine an appreciation. It is shot through with a judicious and dignified love and enthusiasm for "God's Jester." Its combination of analysis and synthesis of character is unusually capable, with the possible exception that some of St. Francis's oddest and least attractive vagaries have not been mentioned. Yet the great service it does for students of history is that it adequately and continuously relates the saint and his ideal to the times. Movements like the declining Crusades, the growing capitalism, Italian internecine war; individuals like St. Dominic, Frederick II, and Innocent III; and, above all, the unfolding of the forces which were to make of the thirteenth century a renaissance are interwoven and displayed as the road along which St. Francis walked. The book is in no sense spectacular. It is too good to require more than its own sober and comprehensive method. Any student of the thirteenth century will gratefully welcome allusions and bits of historical insight which will make the book profitable to him.

Translator, publisher, and printer have combined to make a fine book, but when there is so much to praise, it is permissible to warn American readers about the first two chapters. Both are integral to the theme and design of the book, but the first will not mean enough to one who does not know his Umbria, and the second is too resolutely compressed. Thereafter the book develops in an easy, quiet rhythm, but one might easily be discouraged from a pleasant and profitable repast by distaste for the *hors d'oeuvres*.

BARTLET BREBNER.

Columbia University.

*The Intellectual Background of the Revolutions in South America, 1810-1824.* By Bernard Moses. The Hispanic Society of America, New York, 1926. 234 pp. Illus.

*Viceroyal Administration in the Spanish-American Colonies.* By Lillian Estelle Fisher. University of California Press, Berkeley, 1926. x, 397 pp.

*The True History of the Conquest of Mexico Written in the Year 1568 by Captain Bernal Diaz del Castillo, one of the Conquerors, and translated from the original Spanish by Maurice Keatinge, Esq.* With an introduction by Arthur D. Howden Smith. Robert M. McBride and Co., New York, 1927. 2 vols. [2] 526 pp. Illustrated.

Of these three books that from the pen of Dr. Moses, whose works on the Spanish colonies (among which are *Spanish Colonial Literature in South America, The Establishment of Spanish Rule in America, Spanish Dependencies in South America, Spain's Declining Power in America*) have won for him the reputation of a pioneer in his field and the just fame due a careful and scholarly historian, deserves most careful attention.

This little volume, which was not lengthened into a larger work because of encroaching blindness, is a highly suggestive sketch of the psychology and philosophy of the revolutions for independence in the Spanish South American colonies. Here for the first time in the English language is set forth in *extenso* the spirit and mental attitudes of the colonists and their leaders, and the inter-relationships

of the forces working for independence. As in the English North American colonies, there developed in the Spanish South American colonies ways of thinking different from those in the mother country. And, though there was little opportunity in South America to put into practice the frontier democratic spirit caused by environment, there was, partly due to this lack, a greater desire to assert it. Spain did all that she could through the three-century long colonial period to nullify forces favoring equality. Despite this hindrance, or perhaps because of it, the colonists slowly, very slowly, drifted away from Spanish standards. The resultant trend toward democracy was retarded by the Catholic Church, whose officials, having the common psychology of their brethren in Spain, did what they could to maintain conservative and fixed views. Moreover, the low standards of education and the high degree of illiteracy stunted most of the original thought spared by the Inquisition and the *Index expurgatorius*. There was no such thing as a common public opinion in the Spanish colonies. Under such conditions it is surprising that widespread opposition to paternal misrule at last became articulate. Certain it is that no rapid indigenous political and democratic advance could have been made without the influx of liberty propaganda from Europe and the United States. The Creols, many of whom had been educated abroad by study or travel, became the leaders of the new Revolutionary thought. They were followed quite blindly by the *Mestizo* masses. Lacking political practice in most instances, they created many fantastic concepts and made absurd political blunders. Even after independence was won their political reasoning remained immature. Yet freedom had been obtained and several individuals had acquired prominent reputations in the realm of political philosophy.

It is the reviewer's belief that no student of the Independence epoch in Spanish-America and the historical period prior to it can afford to remain in ignorance of the material contained in this volume. The study of the Spanish colonies in America has made such progress in the last few years that the time is now propitious for the production of a synthetic historical treatise covering the whole field and suitable for a college text. Dr. Moses in his many writings has shown the way. Let someone follow. *Fortes fortuna adjuvat.*

Miss Fisher's volume furnishes the first comprehensive treatment in English of the Viceroyal administration in Spanish-America. The manuscript was submitted as a thesis at the University of California and is based to a considerable extent upon documentary materials, many of which have been used here for the first time. The work is careful, concise, and scholarly.

Between 1535 and 1810 some 160 viceroys served in the Spanish colonies, coming mainly from the ranks of the grandees, the nobles, the clergy, and the military. The viceroy was the King's personal representative in the colonies and the highest colonial official in America. His powers were analogous to those of the Spanish king. He held office, at the pleasure of the sovereign, from three to five years, though some viceroys served for fifteen years and even longer. During his period of office he maintained an elaborate court with Old World pomp and ceremony. His salary varied according to the vicerealty, that of Peru being at times accorded more than that of New Spain. There were certain restrictions placed upon the viceroy while in office, and at the end of his term he was forced to undergo a *residencia*, or inquiry by a court, into his actions while in office. Complaints brought against him were carefully weighed and a decision had to be rendered, in most cases, within six months, after which time the papers in the case were forwarded to the Council of the Indies in Spain for final decision. Besides this check there was another effective supervision over the viceroy in the form of the *visitador* sent by the Council of the Indies to investigate the viceroy's activities.

Four vicerealties were established in Spanish-America. The first was at Mexico City in 1535 and the second was at Lima, Peru, in 1542. These formed the chief civil and ecclesiastical centers in the colonies until 1718, when the



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third viceroyalty was established in New Granada, followed by the fourth in 1776 in Buenos Aires. Many men of note and high character occupied this honored position, yet there were many who disgraced the office.

Miss Fisher has treated the functions of the viceroys topically, showing their powers and limitations (ch. I), their civil functions (ch. II), their economic control (ch. III), their judicial powers (ch. IV), their religious obligations (ch. V), their military duties (ch. VII), and their social relationships (chs. VI and VIII). The work is admirably annotated and has an excellent bibliography and a full index.

The last work under review here is a reissue of an inexact translation of a faulty manuscript text, and, aside from the fact that it makes available to the public at a semi-popular price an interesting account of the conquest of Mexico, it appears to the reviewer that there is no excuse for the appearance of these two volumes.

The story is almost as much the life of Cortés subsequent to 1519 as it is the historical memoir of its author. It deals in a naïve manner with the experiences of the conquerors of Mexico. Its very simplicity is unique. And as regards style, it has much in common with the works of Marco Polo, John Smith and "Trader Horn."

The author was engaged upon his task of writing from 1568-1572, some fifty years after the events which he recorded. What appears to be a copy of his manuscript reached the hands of Father Alonso Remón, chronicler of the Order of Mercy. He proceeded to edit it by emending, interpolating, and suppressing certain parts. The results of his labors appeared in published form in 1632. Many translations followed in other countries. In 1800 Maurice Keatinge published in London his English translation from the 1632 edition. But in translating and editing he altered certain parts of the text and transferred several passages to form a preface. Some two and one-half centuries after the Remón edition appeared there was discovered in the Guatemala archives what has been considered the original manuscript. The Mexican government obtained a facsimile copy of it, and in 1904 there appeared in Spanish two volumes edited by Genero García. This was translated into English by A. Percival Maudslay and published by the Hakluyt Society in London from 1908 to 1916 (Series 2, volumes 23, 24, 25, 30, 40).

From the foregoing it is evident that the text under review is extremely unreliable. What is now needed is a cheaper popular translation of the original document.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

## Book Notes

Teachers and students desiring a summary guide for modern European history will do well to examine S. H. McGrady's *A Notebook of European History, 1400-1920* (Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1928. viii, 248 pp.). In content the book is divided into five parts: (1) "The Age of Mediaeval Decay"; (2) "The Age of the Renaissance"; (3) "The Age of the Benevolent Despot"; (4) "The Age of the French Revolution"; (5) "The Age of the Industrial Revolution." Each division is sub-divided into leading topics. Unfortunately, not enough attention is given to the non-political aspects of European history. A line of time chart and blank pages for note-taking are features. While the volume is intended primarily as a review in preparing for examinations, it nevertheless should prove helpful for every-day class use.

In his recent volume, *The Training of an American, The Earlier Life and Letters of Walter H. Page, 1855-1913* (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston and New York, 1928. xii, 444 pp.), Burton J. Hendrick completes the biography of a distinguished American. The story of Page's boyhood, his years at college, his post-graduate work at Johns Hopkins, his careful study of Shakespeare and Jefferson, his apprenticeship in journalism, his association with the

*New York World*, his removal to New York, and his subsequent travels, his editorship of the *Atlantic Monthly*, his interest in political affairs, and his struggle to improve Southern education and to help transform the South of Civil War days into the New South should be full of interest to every reader. Mr. Hendrick, wherever possible, lets Mr. Page speak for himself, but the volume is far more than a collection of letters. Mr. Hendricks deserves credit for a task well done.

*The Economic World*, by Arthur R. Burns and Eveline M. Burns (Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1927. xvi, 304 pp.), is a new and interesting attempt by two prominent British economists to solve the apparently insoluble problem of writing a thoroughly satisfactory text for elementary students of economics. The outstanding merit of this book is its readability and unusual clarity. On the other hand, in their approach to the general problems of production and distribution the authors are disappointingly conservative. Except for the introduction of the Carr-Saunders theory of Optimum Population in place of the conventional treatment of the population problem, the text is distinctly Ricardian in character. On the whole, however, this book compares very favorably with the general run of elementary texts. For the lay reader it should prove even more popular than Henry Clay's *Economics for the General Reader*, because of its greater simplicity and lucidity. In addition, the merit of presenting the elementary principles of economics within the compass of three hundred pages is not to be underestimated when one considers the ponderous volumes usually published in this field.—JOHN FENNELLY.

Jonathan Ranson, in his 1776, *A Day-by-Day Story* (Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York, 1927. ix, 429 pp.), decries the past tendency on the part of historians to give only a one-sided account of the American Revolution. They have been prone, he asserts with great truth, to omit all mention of Tories, Indians, profiteers, deserters, traitors, hoarders of war supplies, counterfeiters, deprecators of currency, bounty-jumpers, small-pox, political chaos, empty treasuries, and the lack of response to the eloquent pleas of recruiting officers. To correct this unfortunate warping of the history of the struggle he has chronicled for the year 1776 the more important every-day happenings as he has gleaned them from letters, diaries, newspapers, and other sources. The volume, therefore, forms a valuable contribution to our growing literature of the Revolutionary period. A bibliography and an index are included.

In his profusely illustrated volume, *The Family Life of George Washington* (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston and New York, 1926. xvi, 250 pp.), Charles Moore, head of the manuscript division of the Library of Congress and one of the foremost authorities on the life of Washington, describes in charming manner the land of the Washingtons, the Washington family migrations, Washington's education, his early romances, and his marriage with Mrs. Custis, the widow of Daniel Parke Custis, and the family life at Mount Vernon. He also throws much light on the career of George Washington Parke Custis. Both student and general reader will profit from reading these pages.

*Twenty Years With James G. Blaine. Reminiscences by His Private Secretary* (The Grafton Press, New York, 1928. xiv, 194 pp.), by Thomas H. Sherman, contains much that was already known about Mr. Blaine; some of the anecdotes, however, are new and are well told. The book also contains a brief note on Walker Blaine Beale, Blaine's grandson, who lost his life during the World War. Two appendices: James G. Blaine, by Harriet Blaine Beale, taken from "Just Maine Folks," and the Garfield Memorial Address, delivered by Blaine in the House of Representatives on February 27, 1882, are also included. Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, a life-long admirer of Blaine, has penned an introduction.

*Immigration and Race Attitudes* (D. C. Heath and Company, New York, 1928. xi, 268 pp.), by Emory S. Bogardus, marks a new departure in dealing with immigration in that it (1) follows the case method, (2) considers the fundamental basis of all race relationships; namely, racial attitude, and (3) recognizes the necessity for giving at least as much attention to the attitude of the native white American as to various minority groups within our population. The author has drawn freely upon his experiences as a participant in the Pacific Coast Race Relations Survey, The Southwest Mexican Immigrant Survey, and Social Distance Studies. Instead of theorizing, he deals with observable data, from which he draws certain conclusions, some of which must of necessity be tentative. The volume is well written and throughout the author never allows his reader to forget that race attitudes is the heart of the problem. The projects suggested at the end of each of the twenty chapters show care in selection. The book is one of the Heath Relations Series and contains a foreword by Professor Jerome Davis, the general editor. It should have wide use as a text.

The H. W. Wilson Company has included in its Handbook Series as volume 2 of series II (N. Y., 1928, lii, 295 pp.) *Selected Articles on Intervention in Latin America*, compiled by Lamar T. Beman. The book opens with affirmative and negative briefs on the question, "Resolved, That the United States should continue its present policy of intervening when necessary in the Latin-American republics." To these arguments are added selected bibliographies. The remainder of the book (295 pages) consists of reprints from periodicals, books, etc., classified as "General Discussion," "Affirmative Discussion," and "Negative Discussion." The volume is well suited for furnishing high school debaters with pertinent material. The general reading public, too, should find it very informing.—A. CURTIS WILGUS.

It is disappointing to discover that a woman who has done so many unusual things, and who by her own account has met and interested so many persons of distinction, should produce so undistinguished a book as Clare Sheridan's *Naked Truth* (Harper, New York, 1928, 383 pp., \$5.00). In spite of the seriousness with which she regards her own career, the reader suspects that she owed her spectacular adventures in journalistic sculpture of celebrities, and in newspaper reporting, to a personal charm she fails to reproduce in her writing, and to the fact that she must have been a welcome touch of something novel and refreshing to men weary of the responsibilities of everything from revolutions to reigning picturesquely. The grain of interest is hidden in a good deal of chaff, and none of the book could be trustworthy history. There is much careless writing and the American publishers might at least have seen to it that George Gray Barnard had his name spelled correctly.

Every person interested in American history, and particularly in its economic aspects, is under deep obligation to Professor Arthur Harrison Cole for editing the *Industrial and Commercial Correspondence of Alexander Hamilton, Anticipating His Report on Manufactures* (A. W. Shaw Company, Chicago, 1928, xxviii, 334 pp.). In a brief prefatory note Professor Edwin F. Gay explains that the volume is published under the auspices of the Business Historical Society, Inc., and that it is the first of its kind to be undertaken by the Society. As its title implies, the volume is made up of the materials which Hamilton gathered for his famous "Report on Manufactures." In addition, it contains the "Report" itself, together with a discriminating analysis of it by the editor. Certain other papers of business interest contained in the Hamilton correspondence are also given. These pertain to the opening of American trade in the Far East and to Hamilton's plan for a great industrial enterprise at Paterson, New Jersey. The nature of the letters, as well as their importance, may be gleaned from Professor Cole's admirable introductory note. Unlike most source volumes, an ap-

pendix showing where the documents reproduced may be found in the Library of Congress and an index are included. This volume should be made easily available to every student of American economic history.

Much valuable and pertinent information may be found in *The New England Economic Situation* (A. W. Shaw Company, Chicago and New York, 1927, x, 260 pp.), a series of papers prepared by Harvard undergraduates in the classes of Professors Edwin F. Gay and Allyn A. Young. While the papers do not pretend to give an exhaustive account of New England's economic problems, they do summarize some of the outstanding aspects of the financial and industrial life of the region. The papers are as follows: "Great Fortunes in New England," by Mark Chancellor Stevens; "The Influence of New England Capital in America's Railroad Development," by Guernsey Camp, Jr.; "The Influence of Legislative Regulation Upon the Relative Growth of National Banks, State Banks, and Trust Companies in New England," by Edward C. Marget; "The Wage-Earner and His Savings Deposits," by Abraham J. Saltman; "The Development of Cotton Manufacturing in New England and in the South, 1900-1923," by Morton Pepper; "The New England Woolen and Worsted Industry," by Alvan G. Smith; "The New England Boot and Shoe Industry," by William M. Reynolds and Sydney M. Rosenberg; "The Position of Massachusetts in the Hosiery and Knit Goods Industry," by David N. Klarfeld; and "An Inquiry Into the Causes of the Decline of the Automobile Industry in New England," by Carol J. Hoffman. Nearly all the papers are illustrated by means of tables and charts. One or two slips are made in citing references; on page 5, for instance, "C. F. Adams, *Revolutionary New England*," should read J. T. Adams, *Revolutionary New England, 1691-1776*. The volume constitutes a valuable reference and it should also serve as an incentive to the undergraduates of other institutions.

## Books on History and Politics published in the United States from Mar. 31, to Aug. 25, 1928

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

### AMERICAN HISTORY

- Allen, Gardner W. Massachusetts privateers of the Revolution. Boston, Mass.: Hist. Soc. 362 pp. \$5.00.
- Around the Horn in '49; the journal of the Hartford Union Mining and Trading Co. from December, 1848, to September, 1849. San Francisco: Book Club of California. 140 pp. \$5.00.
- Assassination of Abraham Lincoln (The), as reported and published April 15, 1865. Detroit, Mich.: Hist. Pub. Soc., 5023 12th Street. \$2.75.
- Babcock, Louis L. The war of 1812 on the Niagara frontier. Buffalo: Buffalo Hist. Soc. 385 pp. \$5.00.
- Baker, Crothers, Hayes. Virginia and the French and Indian war. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press. 188 pp. (7 p. bibl.). \$2.00.
- Bancroft, Frederick. Calhoun and the South Carolina nullification movement. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 206 pp. \$2.00.
- Beman, Lamar T., compiler. Selected articles on intervention in Latin America. N. Y.: H. W. Wilson. 347 pp. (18 p. bibl.). \$2.40.
- Bemis, Samuel F., and others. The American Secretaries of State and their diplomacy. Vol. 4. N. Y.: Knopf. 401 pp. (26 p. bibl.). \$4.00.
- Bemis, Samuel F. The American Secretaries of State and their diplomacy. Vol. 5. N. Y.: Knopf. 445 pp. (75 p. bibl.). \$4.00.
- Bemis, Samuel F. American Secretaries of State and their diplomacy. Vol. 6. N. Y.: Knopf. 467 pp. (31 p. bibl.). \$4.00.
- Bishop, M. C., and Robinson, E. K. American history work-book, pt. 1, seventh year. Boston: Ginn & Co. 56 cents.



- Bishop, William H. History of Roane County, West Virginia, 1774-1927. Spencer, W. Va.: The Author. 712 pp. \$6.25.
- Bomberger, C. M. The battle of Bushy Run [Pontiac's War]. Jeannette, Pa.: Jeannette Pub. Co. 64 pp. \$2.00.
- Brown, Cecil K. A state movement in railroad development [in North Carolina]. Chapel Hill, N. C.: Univ. of N. C. Press. 312 pp. (5 p. bibl.). \$5.00.
- Burge, Dolly S. L. A woman's war-time journal [Sherman's March to the Sea]. Macon, Ga.: J. W. Burke Co. \$1.00.
- Byrd, William. A journey to the land of Eden and other papers. [Three expeditions in Virginia about 1728.] N. Y.: Macy-Masius; Vanguard Press. 367 pp. \$2.50.
- Chadsey, Charles E., and others. America in the making; 2 vols. N. Y.: Heath, 349, 481 pp. \$1.44. \$1.48.
- Chapin, Howard M. Privateering in King George's War, 1739-1748. Providence, R. I.: Author, 68 Waterman St. 256 pp. \$5.00.
- Chinard, G. The treaties of 1778 and allied documents. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 96 pp. \$2.50.
- Conklin, Edwin P. Middlesex County [Mass.] and its people. N. Y.: Lewis Hist. Pub. Co. 4 vols. \$37.50 set.
- Connelly, William E. History of Kansas, state and people, 5 vols. Chicago: Amer. Hist. Society. \$42.50.
- Donehoo, George P. A history of Indian villages and place names in Pennsylvania. Harrisburg, Pa.: Telegraph Press. 304 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$5.00.
- Duncan, Fanny C. When Kentucky was young. Louisville, Ky.: J. P. Morton & Co., 422 West Main St. 246 pp.
- Fisher, H. H., and Brooks, Sidney. America and the new Poland. N. Y.: Macmillan. 428 pp. (12 p. bibl.). \$3.50.
- Fitzpatrick, Edward A. Wisconsin [history]. Milwaukee: Bruce Pub. Co. 429 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$1.72.
- Garner, James W. American foreign policies. N. Y.: N. Y. Univ. Press. 272 pp. \$6.00.
- Gibbon, John. Personal recollections of the Civil War. N. Y.: Putnam. 433 pp. \$5.00.
- Hart, A. B., and Schuyler, W. M., editors. The American yearbook, 1927. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran. 839 pp. \$5.00.
- Holdsworth, William S. Some lessons from our legal history. N. Y.: Macmillan. 206 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$2.00.
- Honeyman, A. V., editor. Northwestern New Jersey, a history. N. Y.: Lewis Hist. Pub. Co. 4 vols. \$37.50 set.
- Hopkins, J. A. H., and Alexander, M. Machine-gun diplomacy. N. Y.: Lewis Copeland Co. 216 pp. \$2.50.
- Horner, John B. Days and deeds in the Oregon country. Portland, Ore.: J. K. Gill Co. 201 pp. \$1.25.
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- Century, August). Baron Philipp von Neumann, Austrian diplomatist, 1813-1850.  
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## THE BRITISH EMPIRE

- Tenure in Frank Almoign and Secular Services. Elizabeth G. Kimball (*English Historical Review*, July).  
 The Seal of the Privy Council. L. W. Labaree and R. E. Moody (*English Historical Review*, April).  
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## GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

- War-Guilt Conspiracy Myth. G. Hanotaux (*Living Age*, April 15th).  
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 The Russian Mobilization of 1914. Alfred von Wegerer (*Political Science Quarterly*, June).  
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- Carl Schurz, Immigrant Statesman. Joseph Schafer (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, June).
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